The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 1, 1894.

The Week.

THE attorney-general's opinion, officially rendered to Secretary Carlisle, that silver certificates are mere warehousing receipts, and not "lawful money," knocks the bottom completely out of Mr. Bland's proposed seigniorage certificates, which are to represent an imaginary gain where in fact there has been a loss to the Treasury. A silver certificate says: "This certifies that there have been deposited in the Treasury of the United States —— silver dollars, payable to the bearer on demand." Now what kind of inscription would he put upon one of Mr. Bland's seigniorage certificates? No silver dollars have been deposited in the Treasury to correspond with them. The bullion bought by the Government under the Sherman act is not worth as much as it cost by 25 per cent. The bullion in the silver dollar is worth only 50 cents. If the Treasury stock were offered for sale, the price would probably fall 25 per cent. more. Now seigniorage represents a gain to the Government over and above the value of the coin produced, and always takes the form of coin. It cannot have any other form. Thus, under the Bland-Allison act the Government bought, say, 100,000 ounces of silver bullion at one dollar per ounce and coined $129,000 out of it. The extra $29,000 was seigniorage, but it existed in a tangible form, and the public bought those dollars and paid gold for them, dollar for dollar, then redeposited them and took silver certificates. Mr. Bland's seigniorage certificates can never "materialize." If his bill should pass, they would be only a shadow of a shade. It does not seem likely that his bill will pass.

The slough of despond into which the Democratic majority of the House has fallen on the question of getting a quorum affords much comfort to ex-Speaker Reed and his friends. They gleefully predict that the Democrats will yet have to come to the method of "counting" a quorum. Many Democrats are said privately to admit the likelihood of this. But a party cannot get along even by the method of counting a quorum unless it can keep a quorum of its own members on hand. The Republicans now sit contemptuously silent in their places, but if they were in danger of being counted to make a quorum, they could easily stop that and compel the Democrats to muster a quorum of their own, by absenting themselves from the hall. The Democrats did that under the Reed rules. Who does not recall the campaign document of 1890, consisting of a picture of the empty Democratic benches? The Republicans passed their laws, not by dint of counting a quorum, but by dint of having a quorum of their own present to vote. The Democrats would be no better off under Reed rules than they are now, if they could not get a voting majority of their own party into the House. Under any rules the thing comes down to getting a majority to vote before it can pass a law.

Mr. Hewitt accounted for the boldness of his remarks at the Southern Society's banquet on Thursday night by saying that he could no longer be suspected of political ambition. That was one of the most biting things he said. Fearless utterance of the truth has become a lost art with the truckling and time-serving breed of politicians, who are most offensive precisely because they dare not run the risk of offending anybody. If abandoning all political hope is the secret of courage like Mr. Hewitt's, a society ought at once to be formed on that principle for the unlocking of honest men's mouths. Then from others than the ex-Mayor we might hope to get that thrill of civic pride which comes from hearing ignoble men and measures nobly denounced. Mr. Hewitt branded Senator Hill full on the forehead as "a mere petty politician, without statesmanship, without breadth or power of intellect, without character, without the right to speak for the great State of New York." The Southern men at the banquet could find no satisfactory answer to his charge that the public men of the South to-day are degenerate successors of Benton and Calhoun, nor can the Southern Congressmen in Washington. His description of Mr. Bland's latest folly as an attempt "to coin a vacuum," or rather "a negative quantity on the other side of the vacuum," was as truthful as was his assertion that the Southern support of such madness is due to "ignorance, crass ignorance." Mr. Hewitt has shown once more that he does not need to hold public office in order to render a great public service.

Mr. Hewitt's frank and searching remarks have created unpleasant emotions among their subjects at Washington, and the chief sufferers by them are declaring, with what he aptly styled that "ignorance which goes forward with the dangerous strength of its own convictions," that he is in his "dotage." One of them says that Mr. Hewitt has "joined that gang in the East who are trying to put their hands into other people's pockets, to rob the people of the West and South." Hitherto the contention of these champions of the people of the West and South has been that their pockets were empty, and that what the champions were in search of were means whereby some of the money of the gold-bugs of the East could be deflected into them. You cannot rob a vacuum any more than you can "coin a vacuum." Neither can you borrow money from a man whom you call offensive names. There are men in the West and South who are able to comprehend these fundamental truths of the business and financial relations of the South and West to the East, but only a few of them appear to get into Congress.

A correspondent asks what is the meaning of the word "coin" as used in the recent issue of United States bonds. There has been so much solemn fooling with this subject by Congress during the past twenty years that any one may be excused for doubts in relation to it. These bonds are issued under the act of July 14, 1870, which declares that they "shall be redeemable in coin of the present standard value, at the pleasure of the United States after ten years from the date of their issue, and bearing interest payable semi-annually in such coin at the rate of five per cent. per annum." The coin then recognized by law was both silver and gold at the coinage ratio of 16 to 1, but practically it was gold only, silver dollars having been expelled from circulation by the laws of 1834 and 1837. In 1873 Congress demonetized silver by forbidding the coinage of the standard dollar at the mint, and by limiting the legal tender of other silver coins to five dollars in one payment. In 1878 Congress, by the Bland-Allison act, restored the silver dollar to the list of legal-tender coins, but provided that silver should be coined only for the Government and in limited amounts monthly. In 1890 Congress repealed so much of the last-mentioned act as required the monthly purchase and coinage of silver bullion, and substituted in lieu thereof the purchase of certain amounts of silver bullion and the issue of legal-tender Treasury notes for the same, and declared that it was the established policy of the United States to maintain the two metals at a parity with each other. In 1893 Congress repealed the purchasing and issuing clauses of the last-mentioned act.

The result of all this is that the new bonds are payable, principal and interest, in silver dollars or gold dollars, at the option of the Government, but that this option is of no consequence, since the duty of keeping the two kinds of dollars

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at par with each other is incumbent on the secretary of the treasury, and since the means are placed in his hands for doing so. The very bonds in question were issued for this purpose. This is no hardship for the Government, since it has received the value of 100 cents gold for all the silver certificates and silver dollars outstanding. It was enabled to exact this price by virtue of the limitation placed upon coinage and issue, private individuals not being allowed to take silver to the mint and have it coined for their own use, as they might and still may do with gold. All apprehensions may, therefore, be dismissed regarding the coin in which the bonds are payable, unless it is feared that the United States may repudiate some part of its debts. It should be remarked that all the outstanding bonds (except the Pacific Railroad currency 6s) were issued under the same act of Congress as the new 5s, and are subject to the same interpretation. The Government paid its maturing debts, principal and interest, in gold coin, even during the darkest hours of the war, unless they were specifically payable in some other kind of money. A dollar of Government debt not specially described always meant a gold dollar at the Treasury counter. Amid much folly and some dishonesty this precious heritage has come down to us, and nobody now living will ever see it violated.

The many men of many minds who make up the Senate committee on foreign relations have turned in their several and conflicting reports on the Hawaiian affair, apparently in the amiable desire to please all tastes and fancies. Chairman Morgan, for so ardent a swashbuckler, is singularly moderate. A year ago he was enthusiastic for annexation and loud in praise of Harrison and Stevens. He still thinks those two gentlemen were wise and patriotic and constitutional in all they did, but he thinks, as well, that the flat reversal of their policy by President Cleveland and Minister Blount was also wise and patriotic and constitutional. They are all honorable men, in fact, according to him, except the Queen, upon whom he is very severe as "the author and promoter of a revolution in Hawaii." Why the revolution went on after she had "postponed her determination" to have one, is not very clearly explained by Senator Morgan. The sceptical, however, will see some light thrown upon this mystery by the extracts published from Mr. Blount's testimony before the committee. He told of being approached two years ago by Thurston, when he (Blount) was chairman of the House committee on foreign affairs, to find out whether the Democratic party could be brought to favor the annexation of Hawaii. Even more significant was Secretary Foster's going to him with Stevens's famous letter of November 20, 1892, heralding the "golden hour near at hand," with the request that Mr. Blount would try to bring his party to support the scheme of annexation. After this, the virtuous surprise of Secretary Foster, three months later, at the "unexpected" revolution and intrigue for annexation was about as fine a bit of comic acting as the annals of the stage can show any Presbyterian elder ever to have achieved.

What the *Tribune* has certified to be "the prosperous republic" of Hawaii, would appear from its own Honolulu correspondence of Thursday to be neither prospero us nor a republic. President Dole is said to recognize the fact that the provisional government has "outlived its usefulness," and to be engaged in drafting a constitution. What this is to be is explained more fully in the *Sun's* correspondence, where we read that there is certain to be a denial of universal suffrage in the election of "the members of the upper house and of the general Government." "This may not seem republican," says the correspondent gravely, but then we ought to remember, he adds, that "a republic in the full acceptation of the term is no more practicable in Hawaii than it is in India." In addition to these troubles relating to the form of government, there is a tremendous row going on already about "the offices." A great many patriotic Americans are on the spot, some of them late arrivals, who view with deep disgust the action of the oligarchs in keeping all the offices for themselves and their friends, and who are clamoring for some more representative government—in other words, one which will give them a good place on the pay-roll. They very properly call themselves the American League, and their ranks are said to be recruited every steamer by patriots out of a job in this country. They are united and determined, they are right up to date in the methods of American politics, and are bound to make the old-fogy members of the provisional government divide the spoils with them or quit their fooling altogether. On top of all this there is a burning Chinese question, a Japanese question still hotter, and a Portuguese question fully as hot. Taking all the indications together, it is clear that the era of theatric government in Hawaii is rapidly drawing to a close, and that the revolution must either go forwards or backwards. It cannot stick half-way down the slope much longer.

Full returns of the recent election in Pennsylvania show that Grow's majority for Congressman-at-large closely approaches the phenomenal figures of Cleveland's majority over Folger for the Governorship of New York in 1882. The Democratic candidate in this State twelve years ago received 192,854 more votes than his opponent, while the lead of the Republican candidate in Pennsylvania last week was 187,819. There was a falling off of about one-fifth in the total vote from the figures of the corresponding election for Congressman-at-large in 1892, but the Republican vote is well up towards the record then made. The showing for the two parties is as follows:

	Rep.	Dem.	Rep. maj.
1892.....	512,557	448,714	63,843
1894.....	486,028	298,209	187,819

Everything indicates that many thousands of Democrats are so much disgusted with the record of their party to date that they went to the polls and voted for the Republican candidate, while many thousands more refrained from voting altogether.

Senator Hill makes known the fact that he does not desire or intend to run for Governor of New York this fall, as rumor has been saying he did, and that he expects to see Gov. Flower renominated. It would be a very poor year for Mr. Hill to run, since there would be nothing for him to "trade off" in return for Republican votes. Then, too, the Maynard incident and the rejection of Messrs. Hornblower and Peckham are still fresh in the public mind. If, under these conditions, Mr. Hill were to seek an expression of popular opinion upon himself as a statesman, he might get one very similar to that which his friend Maynard received. His withdrawal is a sad blow to Republican hopes, for it deprives them of the weakest opposing candidate that they could expect to have. They will need to have a very weak candidate against them if Platt's leadership is continued till the next campaign, as now seems inevitable. He has succeeded already in greatly damaging the brightest prospect his party has had for a quarter of a century; and instead of having a "sure thing" of this State in the next election, which everybody thought it had after the last election, it has merely a fighting chance, dependent entirely upon the factional quarrel in the Democratic ranks.

A curious illustration of the ignorant comment often made upon public affairs is found in these remarks by a Republican organ in New Hampshire, the Manchester *Mirror*:

> "It is a parody upon justice when John Y. McKane is sent to the penitentiary for election frauds, and the man in whose interest these frauds were perpetrated and whose success was accomplished by them acts as President of the republic. Cleveland should pardon McKane at once and appoint him to an honorable office, or resign."

These frauds were really committed in

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the interest, not of President Cleveland in the election of 1892, but of the Democratic candidates last fall for judge of the Supreme Court in the district containing Gravesend, and for judge of the Court of Appeals, both of whom were defeated by great majorities. The suggestion that Cleveland should appoint McKane to an honorable office recalls the fact that Harrison did appoint McKane's man to the office of United States marshal, whose duty it was to supervise the administration of the federal election laws for the prevention of election frauds! McKane turned the Democratic majority of 372 in Gravesend in 1884 into a majority of 436 for Harrison in 1888.

The bill incorporating the "Provident Loan Society of New York," which has been introduced at Albany, ought to become a law without opposition. Its object is to empower some of our most charitably-minded and public-spirited citizens, including Mr. Hewitt, Mr. Fairchild, the Rev. Dr. Greer, Mr. John S. Kennedy, Mr. William E. Dodge, Mr. Charles S. Smith, and Mr. Seth Low, to establish pawnbroking agencies for the benefit of the poor. The object is to give loans on the most reasonable terms possible to persons in distress who may be vouched for as worthy to receive such aid. The business will be conducted on humane principles, and money will be lent on the most generous terms consistent with business considerations, and in such ways as to encourage repayment and redemption of the personal property pledged. Payments will be allowed in instalments, and in various ways the society will endeavor to aid deserving people who are in distress through sickness or enforced idleness, to tide over the period of temporary misfortune with the least possible permanent loss and with entire self-respect. It would be difficult to conceive of a more deserving form of genuinely helpful charity than this is, and we presume that there will be no opposition to it among the members of the Legislature.

"This is a very religious community," wrote a traveller in the remote West to his friends some fifty years ago; "the people carefully observe the scriptural injunction which says, 'Let God be true, but every man a liar.'". This scriptural injunction must have been in the mind of the writer of a report on the Wilson tariff bill for the Portland (Ore.) Chamber of Commerce, which begins as follows:

"The Wilson Bill.—The so-called Wilson bill, more nearly a free-trade measure than has been the law of the land for more than forty years, has already passed the House of Representatives. The only chance of defeating it is in the United States Senate. It not only strikes at nearly every mining and manufacturing interest, especially in the Northern States, but it absolutely sounds the death-knell to several interests in which the State of Oregon is deeply interested."

Forty years! That term, of course, includes the Morrill tariff of 1861 and the tariff of 1857. As the report of this romancer goes on to describe the approaching death of the wool industry in Oregon, we will compare the Wilson bill with those tariffs as to wool and woollens:

	1857.	1861.	Wilson bill.
Wool	virtually free	3c. per lb.	free
Blankets	15%	6c. & 25%	25%
Flannels	19%	25%	25%
Carpets	24%	30%	30%

There was no duty on coal in the tariff of 1857. There was no duty on iron ore or on copper or copper ore in the tariff of 1857 or in that of 1861. In fact, the Wilson bill is, on the whole, more protective than the later Morrill tariffs of 1862 and 1864, if we take into account the internal taxes on manufactures which then existed but have since been repealed.

Much of the football furore, both in the colleges and among the public, has been due to the popular passion for *excess*, which the newspapers all cultivate, and which most instructors of youth do little or nothing to repress. A disposition to "hysterical excitement" is, in fact, in many quarters cultivated as a peculiarly American and very valuable quality. President Eliot of Harvard, in his annual report, says of athletic sports in colleges, when "exaggerated":

"They induce in masses of spectators at interesting games an hysterical excitement which too many Americans enjoy, but which is evidence, not of physical strength and depth of passion, but of feebleness and shallowness."

This is lamentably true. The typical "good American" of the newspapers and public dinners is nearly always in a state bordering on frenzy about everything which interests him, and he cultivates this tendency as a sign of something new and great in the moral and intellectual world; the fact being, as President Eliot points out, that it is a sign of weakness, and, he might have added, of barbarism. The savage is the most excitable of men, and he cools down as he becomes more civilized and faces life with more and more composure. After a football match, the victors, far from seeking to display a modest stillness and humility, a manly Greek horror of excess, seek to indulge in every form of extravagant rejoicing—yelling, howling, jumping, drinking, singing, and dancing, till the college yard resembles an Indian village after a successful raid. In some colleges these saturnalia are encouraged and even promoted by the faculty. They come out on balconies and rejoice to see their students converted into an uproarious mob. They even furnish wood for the bonfire. The man who displays least self-control is the hero of the hour, the most thoroughly "American" of the crowd.

The effect of this sort of training on our politics is very unfortunate, and particularly in our foreign relations. It makes all rational—much less, informed—discussion of foreign complications very difficult, and in some cases impossible. The minute a difference arises with a foreign power, "the good American" falls to jumping, howling, singing and dancing, and waving the flag, and thinks it disgraceful or unmanly to reflect upon the matter or see what the law is. This is often true of college graduates; it is doubly true of plain people all over the country. They feel that their first duty to their country is to keep alive a state of excitability and unreasonableness, and they suspect those who advise calm and consideration, of secretly plotting against their peace and dignity. But the really great things of the world have been done by self-contained peoples who kept their emotions within bounds. The Greeks, the Romans, the English, and now the Germans, are all peoples who have had the great art of keeping cool, and who have made the greatest figure in civilization. The hysterical, the boastful, the noisy surely go to the wall in the great struggle of the nations. Moderation in all things ought to be taught in all our colleges, and the things which make for extravagance and violence and tomfoolery and the suppression of the reasoning faculty, to be discouraged.

New Zealand is trying to bring to justice a set of pious swindlers worthy to be named beside Jabez Balfour, whose extradition from Argentina has been so eagerly sought by his enraged victims in England, and apparently will be granted. The leading members of the New Zealand firm of Harper & Co. were two brothers, sons of the bishop of the colony, who were particularly devout churchmen and kept up great establishments where exclusive society and charity went hand in hand, and where aristocratic tourists from England were handsomely entertained and as handsomely let into "good things" for their money. The smash came last year, when the firm failed for $1,250,000, with $250,000 secured to favored creditors, and no other assets whatever. Among the unsecured creditors figure many well-known Englishmen, like the brother of Sir John Gorst, who is down in the schedules for $95,000, and the Right Hon. A. J. Balfour, for $45,000. The combination of high interest and eminent piety had proved too much for these credulous investors, and the million dollars which they turned over to the firm is now reported by the committee of creditors to be "absolutely lost." One of the bishop's sons has fled, and the indictment against the other is quashed. They may yet set up in London or New York and resume operations on a larger scale. Certainly the stock of the gullible in either city is by no means exhausted.

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NO QUORUM.

THE state of affairs in the House of Representatives is this: A considerable number of members, under the leadership of Mr. Bland, desire, and have through all the month of February desired, to pass a bill. They constitute a majority of the members present. At every possible opportunity some member opposed to the bill raises a question of a quorum of the House being present. A count is thereupon ordered; less than a quorum answer to their names; a call of the House is ordered; the Speaker's warrant to arrest absentees is issued, and the sergeant-at-arms, through his deputies, proceeds to hunt them up, in town and out of town, and arrest them and bring them to the bar of the House. When they are caught and brought in, they deny the legality of their arrest, or denounce it as an abuse, or give excuses, sometimes penitent and sometimes humorous. There may be then show of punishment in the temporary infliction of a fine, with the understanding that all fines will be remitted when the session ends. As a rule, an invariable rule, no one is ever punished. When a quorum is thus procured, the House resumes business. The business consists for a time in dilatory motions. Then there is another absence of members, another count, another call of the House, more arrests, more excuses; and so the thing goes on.

This state of affairs in the House of Representatives is not new. There has never been a Congress, so far as the memory of man runs, in which it has not occurred. It certainly has happened often, and it certainly will happen again. Tradition has preserved innumerable stories of the shifts of old stagers in avoiding arrest, in coining excuses, and the like. The experienced member, like a sensible man, does not spend the weary night in the fetid atmosphere of an ill-ventilated hall. Neither does he go to bed in his own house or hotel or lodgings, where the sergeant-at-arms can find him and ruthlessly order him to get up and dress and come out in the chilled night air and be laughed at when he is marched up to the Speaker's desk. He goes to some friend's house, or gets a friend to take a room at a hotel and register while he slips up and occupies the friend's room; he takes a train and goes to Baltimore, where he enjoys the hospitality of an inn, and the next day expresses his regrets to the House that he had been misinformed by the people of Baltimore, and led to believe that there were no return trains to Washington after sunset.

At the same time in the Legislature of New York there has been no such state of affairs, and, so far as the memory of man runs, there never has been. There may have been a call of the House to bring in members to vote for a bill, but never to vote against one. It is in the House of Representatives that the leader of a victorious column raises recruits for the enemy. Why this difference between the national and State legislatures? The members of the latter are not men of greater ability or wisdom than those of the former. They are certainly men of much less legislative experience, and consequently are more under the control of their party leaders. Why is it that in one legislative body there is this frequently recurring condition of affairs, and that in the other it never exists?

The reason is that, in the State of New York, laws can be enacted only by the majority; but in Congress we are subjected to what may be termed the legislation of the minority. There are 128 members in our Assembly, and it requires the votes of 65 to pass a bill; in the House of Representatives a bill may be passed not only by a minority, but actually by one-fourth of the members of the House plus one. For simplicity of illustration, let it be assumed that the House consists of 200 members. Of these, 101 will constitute a quorum, and 51 will be a majority of the quorum and sufficient to enact the most important, the most far-reaching, the most injurious statute that partisanship or folly could have framed.

The principle of the Constitution, a principle which we have all been taught to respect, is undoubtedly that the majority shall rule; but a minor provision, in what might be called a code of procedure for the practical working of Congress, unfortunately contains a brief provision which enables a minority to rule. The fifth section of Article I. says: "Each House shall be the Judge of the Elections, Returns and Qualifications of its own Members, and a Majority of each shall constitute a Quorum to do Business; but a smaller Number may adjourn from day to day," etc., etc. It will be observed that the Constitution does not say that the majority of a quorum may enact laws, but that undoubtedly follows from general usage and parliamentary law. It is singular that in the Convention the drift of discussion was the other way. Mr. Gorham "contended that less than a majority in each house should be made a quorum, otherwise great delay might happen in business." Mr. Mercer "was also for less than the majority"; "he was for leaving it to the Legislature to fix the quorum, as in Great Britain, where the requisite number is small and no inconvenience has been experienced." Mr. Gouverneur Morris moved to fix the quorum at thirty-three members in the House and fourteen in the Senate. Mr. Gerry "seemed to think that some further precaution than merely fixing the quorum might be necessary"; "he proposed that the number for a quorum in the House of Representatives should not exceed fifty, nor be less than thirty-three." At that time the prospective numbers of the two houses were in the Senate twenty-six and in the House sixty-five. The fear of not having members enough to do business was a case of well-founded apprehension. The first Congress had to wait from the 4th of March to the 28th of April before a quorum appeared. The fear of legislation by a minority did not disturb the Convention.

It cannot be denied that the case is involved in those moral perplexities which confuse men's minds and leave the less scrupulous of them free to do that which will best serve their own side. One party is trying to accomplish something according to the forms prescribed by the Constitution, and the other is trying to maintain the general principle of the Constitution that this something must be accomplished by a majority of the House and not by a minority. It is not really a case of minority against majority, but of minority against minority. On one occasion Mr. Bland secured 164 votes in favor of the bill, yet could not pass it. If he could have brought in fifteen members to vote *against* it, it would have passed.

This is certainly an anomalous state of affairs where the opponents of a measure can be coerced into assisting to pass it. No men ever have been or ever will be willing to be used by their opponents; and men who resist such attempts generally feel that they have right on their side, and resort to all manner of technicalities or subterfuges to escape bearing a burden which they believe should not be placed on their backs. If Mr. Bland could secure 179 persons to draw his silver-car through the House, there would be speeches and votes against its triumphal progress, but no factious opposition. The good sense, the reasonableness of the American mind would say, "In this country the majority rules, and the minority, having done its best, gives way." But Mr. Bland's 164 men are not able to drag the car through the House; it sticks there, and so he sends out and brings in fifteen men who are opposed to the progress of the car, and who, if left to themselves, would hold it back; and he harnesses them to it and bids them pull as effectively as his own followers. This they will not do. They balk, and as soon as the sergeant-at-arms takes his hand off their shoulders they run away again. They feel doubly bound to do this, partly because they are opposed to the car being wheeled over to the Senate, and partly because it is a matter of honor with them not to be placed in a false position—that is, in a position where, when voting "no," they may be suspected of covertly voting "aye." If fifteen New York members, for instance, were secretly in favor of the bill, they might go in and vote "no" in order to satisfy

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their constituents, knowing perfectly well all the while that those fifteen votes in the negative would be just as effective to pass the bill as if they had been changed to the affirmative. No man likes to be placed in a position where his acts and motives are suspected; and in many minds the obligation to pay a debt is greater when it is a debt of honor than when there is a bond in the case. Certain it is, that one minority cannot command the respect of the other minority, and that minority legislation will always be the parent of "obstructive tactics," or "anarchy," or whatever we choose to call it, such as we have seen during the present month.

The evil will require a constitutional amendment to cure it. Such an amendment will be opposed by the men in Congress who have bills to pass, and especially by those who have bills to pass during the short session and in the last days of the session. But such an amendment would stifle many an unworthy job, and would make the country tolerably secure, and would prevent the enormous waste of legislative time which we have seen and shall see again, and would secure the majority of the people against legislation by the minority. One part of the legislative machinery of the general government is defective. It has creaked and rattled and got out of gear, and stopped the movement of the machine often before, and must again. It is always thus with a defective part. The creaking and rattling and obstructing must necessarily recur until the defect be remedied. The plan of counting a quorum, and the plan of fining a member, and all other plans will fail. Men will not be coerced into supporting a measure to which they are opposed. If measures of such importance as will arouse such opposition are to be passed, let them be by a majority of our Representatives and Senators in Congress.

NEO-BIMETALLISM AT BOSTON.

THERE are two distinct novelties in the letter on the above subject from Gen. Francis A. Walker which appeared in Saturday's *Evening Post*. The first new thing we discover is, that bimetallism does not demand the concurrent circulation of the two metals, but is satisfied with an alternate circulation, *i. e.*, with two kinds of monometallism, as was the case in France from 1803 to 1873. The second new thing is, that the neo-bimetallism of Boston is designed to quiet "the feelings of wrong and anger in the West and South so unpleasantly manifest of late years."

It quite takes our breath away to learn that concurrent circulation of the two metals is not an essential feature of bimetallism. We have been attentive observers of the controversy as it has taken place in three international conferences, as well as in Congress and on the hustings *passim*, and we affirm that without such concurrent circulation bimetallism has no popular standing whatever, if indeed it has any other kind of standing. Possibly some people have cherished in their bosoms the idea of an alternate standard as an advantageous thing for the world. We know that Jevons once had such an idea, although his last word on the subject of bimetallism was decidedly adverse to it, either nationally or internationally, as was also the last word of Bagehot. Gen. Walker was himself a member of one of the international conferences referred to, but neither he nor any other member of it alluded to an alternate standard as a desirable thing, so far as the official report informs us.

Now, a word about the West and South. It is a matter of record that the West and South, considered as one group, voted in the House of Representatives for the silver-repeal bill. If no votes at all had been cast by any State north of Maryland or east of Ohio, the repeal bill would still have been passed by more than twenty majority. Neither the West nor the South (nor the East for that matter) makes nice distinctions on this subject. To the great mass of the people the silver question has but one complexion. Only here and there can a person be found who knows what you mean when you talk about a ratio of coinage. Even college graduates who have not given special attention to the subject are puzzled to know the difference between a concurrent circulation and an alternate circulation. "What is the meaning of all this talk about 16 to 1?" said a member of the University Club to a group of his fellow-clubmen one perspiring day last summer when Congress was all ablaze with the subject. Only one member of the group was able to tell him. Very likely this man could tell the difference between ohms, volts, and amperes in electrical science, while the one member of the group who did know what was meant by 16 to 1 did not know and perhaps could not be made to know the difference between those electrical terms. Hence we must not absolutely condemn persons who consider the silver question all one thing and do not divide it up nicely as Gen. Walker does.

The point of all this is, that when Gen. Walker presents the West and South to us as a region to be soothed, he overlooks the fact that they have already had their own way as to the only silver question that the vast majority of them now understand, or ever can understand. Moreover, the organs of public opinion thereaway which were most influential in bringing about the change in their Congressional vote, took decided ground against the alternate standard which Gen. Walker favors. It was precisely because of the danger of slipping to the silver standard that the Chicago *Tribune* insisted, day after day and week after week on the repeal of the Sherman act. So it was with most of the newspapers West and South which favored the repeal, and so it will be now if Gen. Walker brings to their attention a plan for getting on to the silver standard and taking the chances of getting back to the gold standard at some future time. The idea was well expressed by ex-Speaker Reed in a debate with Bland, when he said that what he objected to was not having the double standard, but getting on to the silver standard by inadvertence. Gen. Walker thinks that the West and South will be charmed with the prospect of an increasing supply of money. How such increase is to be had with a system which gives us gold at one time and silver at another, according to the old French model, he does not show. The only present danger as regards the West and South is, that Gen. Walker and his following may persuade them that they have a grievance which they would not otherwise be aware of.

POLITICAL ECONOMY AND THE PEOPLE.

THE fifth part of Palgrave's 'Dictionary of Political Economy' contains, under the head of "Definitions," the following very just observation:

> "It must not be forgotten that the practical usefulness of political economy depends chiefly on its wide diffusion; so that the formation of an economic language understood only by the specialist is highly undesirable. For the promotion of the material welfare of a people few things can be more useful than patient inquiry into the actual meaning of terms like wealth, income, capital, rent, wages, and profits, when used in common language by ordinary people. As soon as ambiguities and inconsistencies are commonly perceived, language may be trusted to find some way of ridding itself of them without the assistance of formal definitions."

This is the deliverance of Mr. Cannan of Balliol College, Oxford, and a very good deliverance it is. It leads us to ask what usefulness political economy can have except "practical usefulness." What end can it serve in our day, except that of sharpening the wits of its professors, unless it has wide diffusion among the people and is accepted by them as authoritative teaching? And as a mere sharpener of the wits, in what way is it superior to the schoolmen's philosophy?

In the same number of the "Dictionary" we turn to the economist's new mode of measuring economic quantities —quantities of utility, of desire, enjoyment, price, hire, and so on—and we find this from the Rev. P. H. Wicksteed:

> "When the elements of the theory of dimensions have been thoroughly grasped, it will be easy to apply it to economic questions; and it will be found an invaluable check in the more intricate problems of coördination and analysis. Thus, if the unit of value-in-use or utility be taken as fundamental and regarded as having the dimension U, and if the commodity we are considering be taken as having the dimension Q, then DEGREE OF UTILITY (q. v.) of the commodity, being the rate at which satisfaction is secured per

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unit of *commodity* consumed, will have dimensions U Q^{-1}, and will be readily distinguished from rate of enjoyment accruing to the consumer per unit of *time*, with dimensions UT^{-1}. *Price* determined by *marginal* or final DEGREE OF UTILITY (q. v.) will have dimensions UQ^{-1} or P, and *hire*, being price per unit of time, will obviously have dimensions PT^{-1} or UQ^{-1} T^{-1}."

We need hardly say that there is very little chance of hire, or price, or satisfaction in consumption, or value-in-use being popularly ascertained in any such way as this. Unhappily, there is still less chance of conclusions reached by such processes as this being generally accepted by the people. And yet the tendency in nearly all the colleges and among all the various schools is to study political economy in this way, by mathematical processes, and to clothe its simplest facts in ingenious definitions, and in truth, as far as possible, to give it the air of a recondite science. The consequence is that we fear its "practical usefulness" is fast disappearing. As long as the people, in these days of democracy, care nothing about it, and do not even pretend to follow its discussions, it can hardly have any more human interest than speculations on the politics of Saturn. It is pleasant to see that so many of our young men are getting good mental exercise out of it, but its influence on human affairs is likely to prove *nil*.

For the discovery of an ethical law of distribution all the younger economists are now supposed to be working eagerly, with diagrams, symbols, tables, and all the other tools of their trade. Its revelation would be worth any money to the civilized world. For, as Mr. J. B. Clark of Smith College, Northampton, informs us in the Dictionary:

"Among a self-asserting people industry loses fruitfulness whenever the belief is widely diffused that products are shared according to an unjust principle. If it were a general conviction that social evolution is in the direction of iniquity—that distribution already robs the workers and will rob them more hereafter—no force could prevent a violent overturning of the social order."

Now, what the economists are contributing to the sum of popular beliefs is, we fear, "the belief that products *are* shared according to an unjust principle." What the "just principle" is they promise to tell us by and by, but decline to state how it is to be discovered. "Ethical science," says Mr. Clark, "has not furnished a clear standard of justice in the double apportionment." We must take leave to doubt whether it is ever likely to do so, and whether any "law" of distribution which the economists bring to light will ever be accepted by the multitude. The rule of distribution which the world has hitherto followed is to pay every man the sum necessary to secure his services—the capitalist what would induce him to invest, the superintendent what would induce him to superintend, and the laborer what would induce him to labor. This is as near as the human race has been able to come to giving people their deserts, and is apparently as near as it can come without the direct interposition of a divine ruler. For no matter what rule "ethical science" (that is, the speculations of a few philosophers) may furnish, the difficulty of forcing men to live up to it will still remain. We shall have to compel capitalists to save and invest, and inventors to invent, and captains of industry to plot and plan, and laborers to work contentedly for less than they think they ought to have. The most hopeful reformer the world has seen has never yet said that he would be able to content everybody. Consequently, besides all our other devisings, we must devise a plan for making everybody do his best against his will.

PROTECTION AND DESPOTISM.

SENATOR HAWLEY interposed in the Senate debate last week to object to haste in passing the tariff bill. He did not believe that the business interests of the country would adjust themselves to the Wilson bill, and intimated that there were thousands of people in his State whose "board and clothing and house-rent depended upon the wisdom of this bill." He affirmed that "to them there was something more important than haste, namely, a small homœopathic dose of justice and mercy."

The Connecticut Senator chose rather an unfortunate day to speak of the industries of his State as in a condition of suspended animation, inasmuch as, at the very time he was speaking, despatches were being sent from his own city, Hartford, and other Connecticut towns giving accounts of the opening of many closed mills. If such things can occur with the date and rates of the new tariff still uncertain, what a genuine business boom might reasonably be looked for with the tariff legislation actually disposed of, any business man could tell Senator Hawley. It is no doubt true that business is terribly hampered by the remaining uncertainties connected with the tariff law. As far as that goes, most business men would agree with Gen. Hawley; but very few of them would agree with him in saying that if the tariff bill were promptly passed as it is, it would be all up with them.

What is most striking in Senator Hawley's view, however, is his tacit admission that we in this country have practically gone over to the despotic theory of government. That is to say, we have come to confess that our prosperity and happiness depend not upon our own industry and enterprise and virtue, but upon the beneficence and wisdom of our rulers. Like so many cringing Orientals, the business men of this country, if Senator Hawley's description of them is correct, are prostrating themselves before the authorities at Washington, as before so many Moguls, Sultans, or Grand Viziers, and begging them to do for them what they can by no means do for themselves. "It is not by our machinery or invention or abundance of raw materials, O Vicegerents of Allah," they cry in chorus, "that we can manufacture and get gain, but only by gracious aid of your Serene Highnesses and Almightinesses." That is the language of slaves addressing a despot, yet it is practically the language which the freest people on earth have come to employ.

The hardiest would scarcely maintain that this attitude, whether wise and necessary now or not, is in keeping with the traditions and the early tendencies of our government. In the last number of the *Yale Review* we find some just and timely remarks, well worth quoting, on the great change that has taken place in the last few years in our ideas of "the relation between the Government and the people":

"We have been taught that the people themselves were primarily responsible for their own happiness or misery; and that while the Government could do something to help them, it could not take this primary responsibility off the shoulders of the freemen themselves. Of late this healthful sentiment has changed. The freeman's view of the functions of Government has given place to that of the serf. We are being taught by many speakers that wages depend not upon the efficiency of the laborer, but upon the action of Congress. We are given masses of special legislation to promote the happiness of all sorts of people; and we are by implication telling these people that, if they are not happy, it is the fault of Congress, and that the remedy is to be found in seating a different man in Congress, who will pass a different kind of law."

How vast this change is since Washington's time may be seen by reading the pleas he was forced to make for sufficient power for the federal Government to enable it decently to exist. In those days there was nothing the people dreaded more than over-government. The strongest argument against the Constitution of 1787 was that it opened the way for Congress to meddle intolerably with the liberty and the property of the individual citizen. What would those jealous freemen say to the spectacle presented by their descendants running to Congress year after year to ask for legislative control of their private business? Could they understand it in the slightest degree? We do not think they could unless they were familiar with the protective legislation of the last thirty years, which has gradually taught a whole generation to believe that it is the duty of Congress to have a fatherly care of every man's business, which, without it, will go speedily to ruin. We recognize the sincerity of many of our excited manufacturers in their delusions about the tariff, but delusions we are sure they are under, and will soon find out themselves. They are like men drowning in two feet of water and calling loudly for help, when all they need to do is to stand upon their own feet

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One of the greatest blessings of the passage of the Wilson bill will be that it will make our manufacturers thoroughly ashamed of their abject professions of helplessness without a tariff.

WOMEN AT THE UNIVERSITY OF PARIS.

NEW YORK, February 18, 1894.

PARIS is the paradise of students, and the University of Paris may be called the paradise *par excellence* of the woman student. It is open to her on precisely the same terms as to men. A diploma from a college, or from a proper preparatory school, or an examination at the university itself, is all that is necessary to admit her to an equal and acknowledged place among the thousands of other students, male and female, on its rolls. Indeed, if she is not studying for a degree, she need not present any testimonials of fitness at all, but may follow any course of lectures or as many courses as she may choose without any preliminaries whatever, and with no more trouble than finding out where the lecture-rooms are, and walking into them, entails. Scores of women, many of them elderly, some even very old, follow the courses in this way, making up, anonymously as it were, their lack of early training, and getting for themselves at least an idea of the higher education they hear so much about.

This is particularly the case at the Sorbonne proper (the original University) and the Collège de France, where the lectures on literature, languages, history, and the like are given. Here the women, both regularly matriculated *étudiantes* and the simple listeners above described, flock in such numbers that the more popular and "ornamental" courses, as, for instance, the History of French Literature in the Eighteenth Century, or "Le Romantisme français et allemand," or "L'Histoire de l'Art en Grèce," are sarcastically called by the angry male students who find themselves crowded out of the best seats, or out of the room altogether, *Cours des Dames*. Often it is the lecturer rather than the lecture that attracts. A brilliant, eloquent speaker, a striking or interesting personality, almost always gathers the women about him by the dozens. Even in such courses, however, as the lectures on Psychology of Professor Ribot (editor of the *Revue Philosophique*), women, old and young, form a large majority of the *assistance*. Many of them are, of course, earnest and capable students, but many others, especially the no longer young French women, are not, and the real "woman student" herself cannot but consider them queer characters for a classroom. Yet there is a pathos about these belated ones too: their presence expresses a need the opportunity to gratify which has come too late. It should also be added that they have their male counterparts to bear them company. The *bemoostes Haupt*, male as well as female, flourishes in these free Paris lectures, which any beggar from the streets may enter and enjoy if he will—and he sometimes does, of a cold or stormy winter day, for the *salles de lecture* are nicely warmed.

This loose and liberal management of the university lectures, though a great advantage, a blessing even, to many, as we have seen, is a very serious disadvantage from a scholarly point of view, for by admitting such a mass of unwinnowed mediocrity—it is not only the women who are referred to now—it lowers the whole standard of instruction. The lecturer who wishes to have his *salle* filled—and what lecturer does not?—is often led into popularizing and embellishing his "style" at the expense of his stuff. To a student coming, as the writer did, from a German to the Paris University this fact cannot fail to be strikingly apparent. There is less earnestness, less depth, less everything that is really worth hearing. Of course, there are profound scholars among these professors of the *cours publics de Paris*, men who have a great deal to teach, and who will not, in imparting it, water their intellectual stock with catching phrases and *jeux de mots* to tickle the general ear; but they are very apt to be left to dispense their unadorned learning to empty seats. An amusing experience related to the writer by the American woman who was the heroine of it is a good illustration of this:

She was a retiring little person, without any pretensions whatever to scholarly attainments and no ambition in that direction. Having chanced to hear, however, through a professor friend, a great deal about a certain distinguished Orientalist who lectured on the ancient Eastern languages at the university, she concluded to go once and hear, or rather see him. Overtaken by a storm one day in the vicinity of the Sorbonne, she bethought herself of this and resolved to improve the opportunity if perchance day and hour should coincide. As it happened they did, and after considerable searching she found the *salle* assigned to him—up two flights of rickety stairs in the oldest part of the old buildings. The room was dingy and very small, but there was a big stove in it, and close to the stove sat a dirty, bedraggled old woman who had evidently come in there to get warm. The only other person present was a fashionably dressed, frivolous Parisienne, whose motive could be only curiosity. The American woman sat down for politeness' sake on a front bench, and a moment later the famous Frenchman entered: an elegant little old man in full evening dress and pearl-colored kids, with the badge of an officer of the Legion of Honor in his buttonhole. He looked through his glasses at the shabby woman by the stove, at the dainty *boulevardière*, and—addressed his lecture to the quiet little American on the front bench. She, of course, followed him respectfully and as intelligently as she could, though his long citations from languages whose very names she did not know were all alike Sanskrit to her ears. When he was through, he addressed her directly in the most kindly and courteous manner, telling her how it touched his heart to find a student, and a woman student at that, so deeply interested in his subject, and promising to advance her in it as far as he could before the semester was over—it chanced to be in the early weeks of the winter term. She had not the courage to be ungraciously frank and tell him that she was there only out of curiosity, and neither knew nor wanted to know anything about those horrible Eastern tongues. She tacitly acquiesced in his assumption that she was a student, and gave him her name and address when he asked them. Next day she received a package of books from him, his own books and rare editions of other works on his subject, and a scheme of study to be carried on in connection with the lectures she would hear from him. Of course, she felt obliged after that to attend his next lecture, when she was the only auditor, the *boulevardière* and the shabby old woman having vanished, not to reappear. And this went on from lecture to lecture to the end of the term, no one else ever coming in. For five months she slaved away at the subject she had been thus forced into with the famous old Academician as self-constituted special instructor. "He was so lovely," she said in extenuation of her cowardice, "that I had not the heart to undeceive him." But she never dropped into another lecture at the Sorbonne just to see a distinguished man.

It is in the *cours publiques*, or "open" courses, of the Faculté des Lettres that these peculiar and decidedly lax conditions more especially obtain. The *conférences*, which are similar in function to the Seminar of a German university, and the *cours fermés*, are much more strictly regulated and are much more serious in themselves. Only matriculated students are admitted, at least nominally, but in reality the rules governing even these are not strenuously enforced, and almost any one wishing to do so may share in their advantages without the required matriculation. Particularly for foreigners is this the case. Both in France and Germany, if the native students themselves are to be believed, the foreign student gets round all such regulations more easily than the native. There is undoubtedly much truth in this statement; and for this reason, and others, a foreign diploma does not always represent as much as an equivalent degree from one of our two or three real universities. The *name* of it is often half the value.

In the more strictly technical schools, as law, medicine, the natural sciences, the conditions are quite different from the *entrez par où vous voulez* of the Faculté des Lettres, and the proportion of women falls at once. A year ago there was but one woman matriculated in the school of law to more than 2,000 men; and in the school of medicine there were about 150 women to over 2,500 men. The number of women auditors (*i. e.*, non-matriculated students) diminishes proportionately, owing to the greater difficulty of getting in. Yet even in these technical courses the door of entrance swings open with an ease unparalleled anywhere else. Many of the lectures, indeed, are free and open to the public, and they draw, though to a very much less degree, the heterogeneous crowds the literary lectures bring together. The laboratories, however, and the clinics of the medical schools, are closed to all but authorized persons. Yet here too the rule does not always hold, and any quiet, studious-looking woman, especially if she have a *serviette de notaire* under her arm, may walk into hospital or clinic without fear of challenge; and of course the surveillance is even less strict for a man. The clinic of the late Dr. Charcot, the famous specialist on nervous diseases at the Salpêtrière, was regularly attended by outsiders of many grades and callings, who followed with intense interest the *tragédie humaine* presented every Tuesday morning in the amphitheatre of the great hospital.

These being the conditions, it is a little odd, perhaps, that that all-pervading female element of Paris, the *demi-monde*, does not find its way in among the many women, more or less serious, who attend the University. It does not happen, however, though they swarm throughout the *quartier* of the schools; and from the writer's observation it would seem that it is the male students themselves who see that it does not. One day at a lecture on anatomy two such women came in and seated themselves quietly enough on the very last bench; but a student down in front saw them and set up a shout, and another took it up, and then another, till finally half the men present were on their feet, yelling, hissing, howling remarks, and stamping their feet till the *demi-mondaines* rose in confusion and fled. In-

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stantly quiet was restored, and the professor, who was waiting to commence his lecture, was permitted to proceed. There were twenty or more women, matriculated students and auditors, in the amphitheatre at the time whose presence was no more noted than that of the men themselves. Against the women who have the right to be there, or who show by their manner that their object is the legitimate one for the place, the Frenchmen have no demonstrations to make, and — when there is plenty of room left for themselves—apparently not the slightest objection. Once only in the writer's experience was this rule broken, and then the reason was personal, or rather political.

It was at the time when the Franco-Russian friendship was beginning, and the French students were Russian-mad. While waiting for the professor to arrive, they would amuse themselves by singing, or rather shouting, the Russian anthem. They were doing this one day when a little Russian Jewess came in. She was a regular student, but she was a nihilist, too, and had but lately been arrested by the French police for complicity in some plot against the Czar. Of course the other students had heard of this, and they rose now as one man, hissing and yelling as they had hissed and yelled to drive the *demi-mondaines* out. But this little woman had a right to be there, and she stood her ground, very pale indeed, but unflinching, and looking steadily from one to another till out of very shame they subsided into their seats, and left her to gain hers.

This was an exceptional occurrence. As a general thing the French student conducts himself extremely well toward the women who study with him. He has accepted coeducation, and, barring certain national and individual rudenesses which presumably he is not innately polite enough to be conscious of, his manner to his woman comrade may be said to be perfect. There is no attempt at gallantry, nothing to show that he thinks at all of her sex. In the dissecting-rooms and certain of the clinics where coeducation is put to the supreme test, the Frenchman shows himself in the best sense equal to it. J. B. S.

SOME ITALIAN NOVELS.

ALASSIO, January, 1894.

I HAVE just been reading several Italian novels, chosen a little at random; the effect produced is anything but gay. Two end with the suicide of the hero—or protagonist, if you please, as there is little of the heroic in the conduct of either of them—leaving broken hearts behind; in a third, it is a poor maid-servant who is driven to death in a hospital, while the fourth manages to culminate in a combination of suicide with murder.

The books in question are: 'Il Processo Montegù,' 'Baby,' and 'Tiranni Minimi,' of Gerolamo Rovetta, and 'Ermanno Raeli' of Federico De Roberto. Not many months ago I called the attention of your readers to 'L'Illusione' of this latter author as a work showing rare powers both of conception and execution. Since then, I have taken occasion to read one or two other volumes of his—'La Sorte,' a collection of short stories written, at the age of twenty-one years, apparently under the influence of Verga, and 'Processi Verbali,' another collection, of which I shall speak further on. The present volume bears a tormenting resemblance to the work of Paul Bourget. The likeness may be pardoned to so young a writer—he published 'Ermanno Raeli' at the age of twenty-three—and yet the indulgence is not altogether easy. Leaving the merits of Bourget out of the question, the long drawn-out descriptions of the morbid states of two young persons, both refined, to the point where disgusts are more frequent than pleasures, are a trial to the patience, especially when you doubt if two such beings could really exist, and are sure that, if they did, they could not have been worth all the fuss made over them. To crown the general unpleasantness, the work in this moral clinique is done in the mellifluous style peculiar also to Bourget. As a matter of taste, the honeyed tones, the "pussy-cat" ways of the professor combine ill with the forms, the hues, the odors of disease. For heaven's sake, throw open the window, let in a little daylight and fresh air, and let your charnel-house subjects be treated, with sympathy?—yes, if you like, but also with straightforward common sense.

There is, fortunately, no need of insisting on this criticism in the case of De Roberto. 'L'Illusione,' of which an account was given in the *Nation* a few months ago, shows that the novelist has the right stuff in him, and that he has grown out of the ferment of youth into a healthy manhood. At the age of twenty-two he was melancholy as night out of mere wantonness; three or four years later, if not gay, his seriousness is that of a sound-minded moralist. His subjects are still taken from the fashionable and aristocratic world at Palermo, and their joys and sorrows are, of course, such as human nature undergoes in the circumstances of that society—that is, the pleasures are largely out of the reach of poorer people; hard work, ambition, and a fixed purpose exercise less of restraining influence on the passions and appetites, and there is more of a tendency to turn love-making into a business than among the middle classes. Such society has a glamour for the eyes of youth—for most men, in fact, who are not unusually unworldly or surfeited with grandeurs. It is much to the praise of De Roberto that, while still in the age of infatuations, he could write a novel as coolly unbiassed as 'Vanity Fair,' and without the "sour-grapes" flavor that, according to the standpoint of the reader, gives piquancy to or mars the pages of Thackeray. De Roberto is a judge rather than an advocate.

We are, however, leaving 'Ermanno Raeli' rather too much out of sight—unless it be, as I think, that it is already sufficiently described by implication. It may be taken for granted that the book will be read with more pleasure by the admirers of Feuillet and Bourget, and that, if the age of the author at the time of writing be considered, it may frankly be praised as a work of exceptional promise.

Before the appearance of 'L'Illusione,' even, that promise had been already in part fulfilled. There is lying on my table a book of short stories, entitled 'Processi Verbali,' published only a year after 'Ermanno Raeli,' and a complete contrast to that in every respect except as revelation of talents. No flavor of Bourget in 'Processi Verbali'; if it suggest any model, it is some of the more rapid sketches of Guy de Maupassant, in their brevity and point rather epigrams than stories. There are a dozen such in this volume, scarcely one of which is more than the narration of a single incident, turning at times on a surprise, or presenting some sharp contrast between human acts and professions. And these are told with a freshness, a vigor, a lifelikeness, that makes of each one a little gem.

Their freshness and fascination is, in part at least, the effect of a system adopted for their narration. The title of the book suggests police-court reports, but in his preface the author thus explains it:

"*Processo verbale*, in common parlance, . . . means a simple, rapid, and faithful relation of an event taking place under the eyes of a disinterested spectator. I call *Processi verbali* tales that are the naked and impersonal transcription of little comedies, of little dramas taken from the life (*colti sul vivo*)."

He then goes on to say that, in order to be impersonal, the author must obtrude nothing of himself, no descriptions, no reflections, no analysis of mental states, which can be nothing but more or less happy hypotheses, but must simply let his personages speak and act for themselves. Write a tale as you would write a comedy—merely dialogue and the stage directions that are absolutely unavoidable. De Roberto has adhered strictly to his programme in 'Processi Verbali.' We know that the cleverest scheme will not of itself produce a stirring drama, and this one only prevents the action from being retarded by superfluous properties —impedimenta, in short. But the dialogue, which never relates to anything but the affair in hand, is of wonderful crispness and naturalness, and the effect of these little "reports" is startlingly lifelike. The scenes and personages are all, with a single exception, in humble station. The ignorance, bigotry, and superstition that determine much of the action are of the forms peculiar to Sicily, and yet the human nature displayed is always so true, and therefore universal, that, as with a portrait by Holbein, it is good anywhere.

Is this enough to convey a notion of the freshness and animation of these little "reports"? They have other qualities: they are sometimes touching—once, in the first of the series, of a force of satire that is even terrible. It is to be hoped that their author will be moved to give us another series upon the same lines, especially as a companion volume, issued about the same time upon an exactly opposite system—of internal analysis, that is, of motives, with descriptions and the usual paraphernalia of stories—appears to me distinctly inferior to 'Processi Verbali.' This volume, called 'L'Albero della Scienza,' partly because it stands out less from the general run of stories, and partly because it is less indicative of what I find peculiar and charming in the work of De Roberto, I have thought best to leave out of our present discussion.

Gerolamo Rovetta has for a long time pleased his public, not only with novels and stories, but also with plays, the most successful of which, "Scellerata," has been translated into German and represented on the stage of the Burg Theater in Vienna. Some also of the tales and novels have attained to the honors of translation, 'Mater Dolorosa,' the best known of his books, having appeared in both German and Spanish. It has had, too, an exceptional sale in Italy. Now "the rose that all are praising" may very well be "not the rose for me." It is precisely the one that can best afford to dispense with my admiration, and Rovetta's roses are in no want of appreciation. Indeed, it would be hard to refuse them a tribute of praise. They are fine, well-grown flowers, creditable examples of the florist's art. Dropping the metaphor, these novels are well written, the worst of them is clever, and all are pleasant reading. One of them, 'Mater Dolorosa,' may be recommended as one of the best worth perusing among the Italian novels of the day. The Duke, who with but scanty outfit, both in head and heart, makes such a brave show as statesman and leader of opinion, and his daughter, an arrant coquette, vain,

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selfish, and empty-headed, are excellent portraits. Others of the personages, in fact, all of them, are clearly discriminated, forcible, and lifelike—at least those are who make but little claim upon our sympathy and respect. The humble youth upon whom the *duchessina* first tries the effect of her charms, and who, after being used and thrown aside, develops into a newspaper writer of radical politics; the same lady's lover during part of her married life; and some of the minor characters, strongly engage our interest.

As I have already hinted, it is to those who are held up for your admiration that you assume a cool and critical attitude. The novel-reader's heart is prone to prefer sinners to saints, and I would not visit our bad taste upon the head of Rovetta were it not that his superior people do even more than usual to injure the effect of his books. The rank and file of the characters are drawn from originals whom we recognize, while the heroes and heroines are moulded of a superfine porcelain clay, such as served for forming the all too exquisite figures of Octave Feuillet. In his days they imposed upon the world, and to those who have known them from their youth up, they may still shine in memory as types of the grace and distinction that one likes to believe once adorned society. But since photographic novels have come in, these exalted creatures have gone out, and bring a somewhat lumber-room air with them on the occasions of their appearance before a sceptical generation. The difficulty with Rovetta is merely that, while he is in general so much of his own time, he is not so frankly and consistently throughout. In 'Mater Dolorosa,' the duchess whose character and sufferings furnish the title to the book is as beautiful as any of those high-born damsels whose portraits adorned the keepsakes of half a century ago, and as self-sacrificing as the pelican or Père Goriot. She is quite as much out of place in her modern surroundings as would be, though in a very different way, *Lady Teazle* at a five o'clock tea of an æsthetic club.

In the 'Processo Montegù' the characters are better assorted. The action takes place in the higher society of Milan. The hero is recognizably a flesh-and-blood creature like ourselves. He is a young man of noble family who ruins himself by an absolute disregard for pecuniary limitations. Otherwise he is a very likable and even admirable fellow—simple, straightforward, with a delicate sense of honor—in short, the fine flower of the virtues called aristocratic. All this does not save him from ruin, and barely from disgrace; in fact, though the world acquits him on the score of the latter, he cannot acquit himself. And it is here that the note of exaggeration begins to be evident. In his despair he not only refuses the happiness offered him by the woman whom he loves and who loves him, but he leaves her desolate by committing suicide. One may allow that the circumstances were such as almost to excuse the morbid state of mind that brought about the catastrophe, but——.

There is another story. An innocent coquette, with pretty, inconsequent ways that secured her the name of "Baby," was the spoiled child of the society of Verona. The ladies petted her, the gentlemen paid court to her, and she was alike graciously indifferent to all. Then finally comes back to his native city the Count di Santasillia, a hero of the refined and disdainful type dear to the soul of Bulwer, bringing with him a heart lacerated by the one love affair of his life—of course, a tragic one. As might be expected, he finds in the society of Baby at first balm, and gradually a new passion, with which she is at the outset amused, and then, as it becomes serious and exacting, bored. This passion, unlike most others, grows from want of food, until the patient is quite convinced of its hopelessness, when, with the magnificent scenic setting of a mediæval castle perched high above the lake of Garda, he drags the lady of his love with himself from the top of a precipice into the waters beneath.

There is a certain brilliancy about the telling of the story, but the melodramatic ending is of a sort so threadbare with use that it cheapens the effect of the whole. It even takes away the touch of pathos from the suicide of Montegù, making it, too, look like a bit of worn theatrical finery, or a needless sacrifice to the convention according to which the romance, if it be at all serious, must end with death or a convent plus a broken heart.

Convention for convention, I think the English ending is preferable: better the altar than the halter. But there is no use in fighting the literary canons of a people, and the tragic dénouement has its rights like the other; only, to be effective, it must be worked by a strong hand and with conviction. The feeling, after reading two or three novels of Rovetta, despite the interest he excites and the real talents displayed, is that the fine people whom he delights in representing are, after all, a wearisome company. The fault of this is partly inherent in them, but is also in still larger measure due to their introducer. Like many others who have been influenced by false ideals, he can make his puppets very lifelike on occasion; but with the principal characters, it is precisely conviction that is wanting. Rovetta made the Duchess d'Eleda so beautiful, so pure, so inhumanly unselfish not because he believed she was all that, or at least to any such degree, but he wanted to create a saint and martyr, and that seemed the way to do it. Grace, distinction, virtues are all perfunctory. With the Count di Montegù he is more in sympathy—up to a certain point he believes in him; but the exaggerated scruples, the selfish suicide, are again perfunctory. Still, 'Montegù' is a good novel, not so strong as 'Mater Dolorosa,' more so than 'Baby,' and nearer than either of these to being a work of genuine feeling. S. K.

Correspondence.

POST-OFFICE, EXPRESS, OR TELEGRAPH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I note in your last issue a reference to some remarks of mine before the Boston "Nationalists' Club," in which remarks the *Nation* was mentioned. No speaker can be held responsible for any report of his speech unless revised by himself, especially where, as in this case, an hour's talk is condensed by the reporter, after his own fashion, into a few lines. The statement on which you comment, as amended by yourself, is, however, near enough to what I said; and I referred to the *Nation* only as the ablest exponent of the view from which I dissented—namely, that private service is usually done better than that of the public. Let me add that I was not speaking as a Nationalist, for I should not be recognized as having a full right to that name, but only as an individual observer seeking the truth.

My object was simply to show that, within my observation, and after some personal experiment, I had found the public service to be better done, on the whole, than the private. Of this the post-office was one and the most familiar instance; and I purposely took a case where the public and private service came directly into competition, namely, the transportation from Boston to Cambridge, Mass. My house is about four and a half miles from the heart of Boston. If a friend wishes to send me a message in a hurry, he can send it either by telegraph or by mail. If he sends it by telegraph, he is limited to ten words and they cost thirty cents; that is, twenty cents to Harvard Square, and ten cents for delivery at my door, this last being three-quarters of a mile from Harvard Square. But if my friend simply mails his letter with a special-delivery stamp at the Boston post-office, he can put in any number of words, it costs but twelve cents, and—which is the essential point—I get it quite as soon. That is, the delays incident to preoccupied wires at the telegraph office, interrupted wires on the way, and the like usually quite balance the delay incurred by the longer time taken in sending the mailbags from Boston. This is a competition in which, as any one may see, the mail transportation is heavily handicapped, and yet it does its work as efficiently, so far as I can see, and far more cheaply. Moreover, it does it more and more cheaply as time goes on; whereas the telegraph company has raised its price five cents between Boston and Cambridge within some six years, and may at any moment spring upon us a further advance.

Nor does the fact you mention, that the Post-office Department is run at a loss, sufficiently explain the difference. I have not the post-office statistics at hand, but, as I understand it, Massachusetts—where my instance lies—more than pays for its own postal privileges; and the deficit occurs in maintaining postal routes through thinly settled regions, where the express and telegraph services hardly exist at all, or are too expensive for common use.

I know that in sending parcels to such thinly settled regions as, for instance, Colorado, Alabama, and Texas, I am always urged by my correspondents not to send by express, but by mail, as the cheaper and speedier communication. A friend of mine in one of the highest mining settlements in Colorado does much of her shopping in Boston or New York by mail, and gets in that way all the tea she drinks. As to speed, I had occasion, the other day, to send two books to a friend in a small country village in Massachusetts. One went by mail and the other by express, on the same day. The book by mail arrived two days earlier and at less than half the cost. It is true that the express companies nominally make themselves responsible for losses, while the Government does not; but I have personally found it so vexatious and difficult to obtain from them any redress for injury, that this guarantee seems very trivial. But let me venture to ask the *Nation's* own testimony as to the comparison of methods. The *Nation*, like other New York newspapers, when sending out small parcels of books for review to Cambridge, for instance, usually sends them by mail and not by express. If the express service is really better than the mail, why is this done?

T. W. Higginson.

Cambridge, Mass.

[Because the mail is more convenient, inasmuch as (1) there is but one post-office, while there are several express

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offices; (2) there is an hourly messenger service to and from the post-office; (3) the postal tariff is determinable by a pair of scales, and is the same for all distances, which the express is not; (4) there is no giving or taking of receipts, in the case of parcels having but a nominal value; (5) time does not, as a rule, enter into consideration.

We will now tell our little story as to the competition of telegraph and special delivery. A gentleman doing business in this city while residing in a thriving suburb within twenty-five miles of Wall Street, recently found unexpectedly that he should be kept from returning home for two or three days. To inform his wife, he chose the special delivery rather than the telegraph, and on the third day rejoined his wife to find her distracted by his absence. The postmaster had withheld the letter, on the ground that the special-delivery stamp stood for postage due!—Ed. Nation.]

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the last number of the *Nation* (No. 1495) you truly state that, "in drawing the line between the things which should be done by Government and the things which should be left to private enterprise, we have, as in all other transactions of life, to use judgment and pay attention to human experience, just as a householder does." I believe that it is possible at the present stage of economic science to lift the findings of experience under this head into a general principle, and to give to that principle the form of an explicit and scientific statement, according to the varying ratios of value-in-use and of value-in-exchange. Where products or services have a value in exchange which suffices to insure a public supply that shall be adequate to meet the public demand, we have the conditions under which such products or services may be best left within the domain of individual enterprise. But where the value-in-use of a given product or service is inestimably great as compared with the value-in-exchange, insomuch that the public welfare is liable to suffer damage from a dearth of production or service, we have the conditions under which the public administration may or must be invoked, and may or must supersede a dependence on private enterprise.

For it is important to observe that no hard-and-fast line can be drawn at all stages of political and economic evolution between the things which should be done by Government and the things which should be left to private enterprise. The line will vary according to the varying ratios of value-in-use and value-in-exchange as applied to different commodities and services at different stages of social culture and of economic development. Moreover, the purely economic aspect of the question will advance or recede according to the advancing or receding stages of political intelligence and probity in the public service. The politicians who sneer at "civil-service reform" in municipal, State, and national government are clogging the wheels of economic progress under governmental supervision, because they are minimizing the conditions under which it will be either profitable or safe to enlarge the jurisdiction of Government over the things which now fall within the province of private capital. James C. Welling.

Washington, February 24, 1894.

OLD-TIME PENAL JUSTICE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In our natural pride at the great advance of humanity in our own times, do we not talk a good deal of nonsense about the older ones, and thus not only do them injustice but debar ourselves from understanding them? I notice in the review of Frederic Hill's autobiography (*Nation*, No. 1495) that Mr. Hill speaks of living in a time when "men were hanged for stealing five shillings' worth of goods." I do not believe any man was ever hanged in modern times for petty larceny, as such; he was hanged as an habitual criminal, a nuisance and danger to the community, and the theft was only the legal pretext. That stock literary "property," the man who was hanged for stealing a loaf of bread for his starving family, is a myth so far as otherwise decent but distressed laborers are concerned, I imagine. Nobody wants to bring back the old barbarities; everybody honors those who suppressed them; but we only damage our own insight by excited distortions of their nature and motive. The world has always been a juster place and safer for decent citizens than most people allow; and the worse any one aspect of it looks, the surer we may be that there were unseen compensations. F. M.

February 23, 1894.

[It is true that the acts in question were not the cause of many executions, since juries could seldom be induced to convict. It is true, also, that most of the persons so convicted were habitual criminals. But Romilly's 'Life' (ii., 336) mentions cases where no previous offence was alleged and the only evidence was negative, *i. e.*, no witnesses were produced to good character; and the impression of bad character created in the minds of judge and jury might often be devoid of sufficient cause. As Dr. Parr says in a letter to Romilly ('Life,' ii., 370*n*), "Dislike from party, quarrels with servants or neighbors, offence justly or unjustly taken in a quarrel, jealousy about game, and twenty other matters of the same sort, frequently induce men to wish to get rid of a convicted person. . . . The rich, the proud, the irascible, and the vindictive are very unfit to estimate the value of life to their inferiors."—Ed. Nation.]

WOMEN AT THE GERMAN UNIVERSITIES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am glad to hear through the letter of "M. F. K." in the *Nation* for February 22 that women *are* being admitted again to the medical lectures at Leipzig. At the time I was a student in that University (89-'91), I was told by a prominent member of the medical faculty that women were not and could not be admitted to the medical lectures, and for the following reason: Some years ago—eight or ten, he said—women were admitted quite generally to the medical as they have continued to be to so many of the other lectures, and a number of Russians took advantage of the opportunity to follow a course of study for which, as is well known, they have a special predilection. Among these women, however, came one who was not only extremely beautiful, but also extremely light-minded. She quite upset the sober German students, and that, too, with deliberate intent—as a woman myself, it is with regret I write it. Whenever she was present, the lecturer found his audience disturbed and distracted by the handsome and coquettish Slav. Moreover, from flirtation with the many she soon proceeded to more serious entanglements with a few, and at last drove one of her admirers to such a frenzy of jealousy that he shot and killed himself. The unfortunate affair made a fearful scandal, of course, and the result was that the medical lectures were closed to all women, by order of the Cultusminister at Dresden.

The professor who is my authority for this story is himself personally in favor of admitting women to the study of medicine, but he, nevertheless, would not admit me to his lectures at the time I mentioned, because, as he said, he could not, in face of the order from Dresden. He, however, repeated for me *privatissime* the same course he was holding in public, giving me freely of his precious time and special instruction. It is such deeds of kindness as this that one who has been the recipient of them never forgets, as your correspondent truly states.

I must differ from your correspondent, however, in regard to chaperones. It seems to me that the need of a chaperone is the very negation of coeducation, and the girl or woman who feels it ought not to attempt to attend lectures with men. The presence of a chaperone under such circumstances is a confession no self-respecting woman should make, *i. e.*, that she is not capable of taking care of herself, or fears the men may think so. Her work should be, and always is when she is in earnest about it, an all-sufficient "chaperone."

J. B. S.

New York, February 23, 1894.

GOETHE AND ULRICH VON HUTTEN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir; The English 'Dictionary of National Biography,' in its notice of Anthony Aufrere, in common with a good many other books of reference, ascribes to this writer a translation of "A Tribute to the Memory of Ulric von Hutten, from the German of Goethe." I am unable to find in any edition of Goethe's works such a piece as this, or in any library catalogue accessible to me Aufrere's translation. There are one or two bibliographies of Hutten, but I have not access to them. I should like to be put on the track of Goethe's estimate of "Germany's Juvenal"; perhaps some one better supplied with sources of information will guide me. W. I. F.

Amherst College Library, February 17, 1894.

[The essay mentioned by Mr. Fletcher is probably a translation of Herder's 'Denkmal Ulrichs von Hutten,' which appeared unsigned in the July number of the *Teutscher Merkur* of 1776, and was reprinted in vol. iv. of a spurious edition of Goethe's writings which appeared in Berlin (Chr. F. Himburg) in 1779. It is now found in Herder's 'Werke,' ed. Hempl, vol. xv., p. 355. (Cf. ed. Suphan xvi., pp. 133 and 273.)—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

Skeat's Chaucer, the first complete modern edition of this writer's works in prose and

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verse, with an exhaustive commentary, is to be published in six volumes at brief intervals by the Clarendon Press. The American publishers, Macmillan & Co., also announce a 'Student's Text-book of Botany,' from the competent hand of Prof. Sydney H. Vines.

Ginn & Co. have undertaken, in their "Athenæum Press Series," to represent the course of English literature from Chaucer to the present day by means of selections in prose and verse, edited in separate volumes, and sufficiently annotated for use in the higher education. The editors are Prof. George Lyman Kittredge of Harvard and Prof. C. T. Winchester of Wesleyan, and their scheme of collaboration involves English as well as American scholarship. A beginning has already been made with Jeffrey's 'Essays,' edited by Lewis E. Gates of Harvard. 'Old English Ballads,' by Prof. F. B. Gummere of Haverford, 'Selections from the Poetry and Prose of Grey,' by William Lyon Phelps of Yale, and 'A Book of Elizabethan Lyrics,' by Prof. F. E. Schelling of the University of Pennsylvania, are in press.

The Proceedings of the recent conference for good city government held in Philadelphia are to be printed by the Municipal League of that city at a price not exceeding one dollar per volume. Orders should be addressed to Mr. Clinton Rogers Woodruff, 514 Walnut Street.

Mr. Oswald Seidensticker has compiled for the German Pionier-Verein of Philadelphia 'The First Century of German Printing in America, 1728–1830' (Philadelphia: Schaefer & Koradi). A bibliography of the writings of Daniel Pastorius is prefixed, and the subsequent matter is arranged chronologically as to time, and alphabetically as to place, of publication. Indications of collections containing copies of the several works are given where possible. A facsimile of one of the three German works printed by Franklin in 1730 serves as frontispiece, and for other reasons this catalogue belongs with any collection of Franklin-iana. Mr. Seidensticker shows in his preface that three German Bibles were printed in Germantown before any English edition was attempted in this country, and that a German version of the 'Pilgrim's Progress' similarly preceded the reproduction of the original on this side of the water. Pennsylvania naturally, from the character of its immigration, surpassed all the other colonies in the productiveness of its German press. The compiler has very usefully annotated his entries and appended a list of printers and publishers.

Dr. Shedd's 'Orthodoxy and Heterodoxy' (Scribners) is rightly called "a miscellany," and is remarkable chiefly for the small size of the fragments thought worth being gathered up to make a volume. But if, say, the four pages on "The Dangers of Office-holding" seem too trivial for preservation, the thirty-one on "The Union and the War" seem too antediluvian. The sermon bearing this title was preached in this city November 27, 1862—that is, after Lincoln had announced his intention to proclaim liberty to the slaves. Dr. Shedd not only made no reference to this immortal act, but argued against immediate emancipation, and insisted on the right of the Southern States, and of them alone, to deal with the slavery question even after the defeat of armed secession. We know that Lincoln was, even at that time, ready to save the Union with slavery intact, but this folly forms no part of the Lincoln legend; and Prof. Shedd's then orthodoxy in this particular has now become rank heterodoxy.

Mr. W. J. Linton's 'Life of John Greenleaf Whittier' in the "Great Writers Series" (London: Walter Scott; New York: Scribners) is an avowed compilation mainly from two imperfect American biographies, and it hardly challenges criticism that is not directed rather against the editors of the series than against Mr. Linton, who writes with the sympathy we should expect, and with more than the literary grace of his predecessors. The public will now do well to await patiently the appearance of the authorized Life of Whittier by his literary executor, Mr. Pickard.

Harper & Bros. add to their uniform edition of William Black's novels 'The Penance of John Logan' and 'The New Prince Fortunatus.'

The synchronous editions of the Waverley Novels advance with 'Quentin Durward' and 'St. Ronan's Well' in the Dryburgh (Macmillan), and 'The Pirate' in the International Limited (Estes & Lauriat). Mr. Lang, in his preface, compares 'The Pirate' with Scott's Diary, and shows the cramming process which accumulated both local color and character types for the story during his tour among the Orcades in company with the grandfather of Robert Louis Stevenson.

We have already commented at length on the second volume of Taine's 'Modern Régime,' and need do no more than note the fact that his American translator, Mr. John Durand, has rendered his last service to the dead historian in the case of this volume, which bears the imprint of Henry Holt & Co.

Swan Sonnenschein & Co., London, have issued the fifth volume of their 'Public Schools Year-Book,' embodying the usual thorough information concerning the larger foundations, upwards of sixty in number, with appendices naming the successful candidates for military and naval cadetships, the winners of entrance scholarships, the select preparatory schools, etc., and reporting headmasters' conferences and school-anniversary festivals, etc. This knowledge it may sometimes be convenient for American parents to have within reach.

We are glad to see the helpful "Riverside Literature Series" of Houghton, Mifflin & Co. promoted to cloth bindings, very tasteful in every respect. Thus, Nos. 1, 4, and 30 are clapt together, uniting Longfellow's "Evangeline," Whittier's "Snowbound," etc., and Lowell's "Vision of Sir Launfal," etc.; while the "Sir Roger de Coverley Papers" are embraced in the junction of Nos. 60, 61.

The first edition of Sir Archibald Geikie's 'Text-book of Geology' (Macmillan) was most favorably reviewed in these columns a little more than a decade ago, and the book has ever since stood in the first rank as a standard of reference throughout the world. The third edition, now before us, is a far larger work than the first, and is in almost all respects thoroughly up to the present state of development of the science. In one point it leaves much to be desired. Though a vast mass of facts and opinions is marshalled in a most orderly and attractive manner, it is comparatively seldom that the author expresses his own conclusions. In avoiding dogmatism he has become quite too non-committal when it is considered that he is well entitled to express his opinion as a first-rate investigator and not a mere compiler.

Dr. James Ellis Humphrey has rendered a real service to science by translating Dr. Zimmermann's 'Botanical Microtechnique' (Henry Holt & Co.). The work is really a treatise on the best methods of microscopic investigations of plants and plant-structures and secretions. It describes in clear language the various processes of investigation, such as maceration, clearing, staining, sectioning, and mounting, devoting about forty pages to these subjects. The rest of the book concerns mostly microchemistry and the investigation of the vegetable cell and its contents. An appendix is devoted to methods of investigation of bacteria. The book is not intended for class-room study; but as a work for reference in botanical laboratories of the higher class it will prove exceedingly useful. It seems strange that neither Dr. Zimmermann nor his translator appears to know of the dropping-bottle provided with a hollow stopper prolonged into a pipette, working by expansion of the air contained in the globular top of the stopper—a most convenient contrivance which is in common use in American laboratories.

Prof. Elmer T. Merrill's edition of Catullus (Ginn & Co.) is a college text-book of more than ordinary merit. The notes are generally judicious and accurate, and we are glad to observe the absence of that prevalent and pernicious fault which consists in suggesting "free" and, too often, inaccurate translations of the text, with the usual result of giving the average student incorrect notions of the real values of words, apart from their use in the passage under consideration. Parallel passages are indicated in reasonable measure. Some few passages of peculiar difficulty might profitably have received fuller treatment, and some traditional misconceptions of a delicate point have been repeated. But the commentary, taken as a whole, is extremely well done. The introduction, though somewhat prolix (50 pp.), is valuable. The book is furnished with a useful critical appendix and with indices. It deserves to rank with the best American work of its kind.

The Department of History in the University of Pennsylvania has put forth number one, a thin brochure, of "Translations and Reprints from the Original Sources of European History," edited by Prof. Edward P. Cheyney. These sixteen duodecimo pages deal with the Early Reformation Period in England. Another series, edited by Prof. James H. Robinson, will illustrate the Modern History of Continental Europe, and a third, edited by Dana C. Munro, will be concerned with Mediæval History. It is, of course, too early to pass judgment on the execution of this design, which can easily be made very useful.

In the October Proceedings of the American Antiquarian Society at Worcester, Mass., Senator Hoar convincingly corrects a charge that his predecessor, Senator John Davis, talked out a session in which the Wilmot Proviso would have been passed as it came from the House. Von Holst has adopted this, and Senator Hoar apologizes for his and Mr. Bryce's occasional errors on the score of "the influence upon their judgment of the class of persons with whom they have chiefly associated here." In the same Proceedings Mr. Franklin B. Dexter has a very curious and valuable paper on "Social Distinctions at Harvard and Yale" in the early days when the catalogue was not arranged alphabetically, and when family, wealth, or other social consideration determined precedence and privilege. Noteworthy is his statement that "there was never any disposition [at either college] to exalt the ministerial order above laymen of distinction." In the Harvard class of 1653, "Joshua Long, son of an innkeeper in England, takes precedence of Samuel Whiting, the son of a clergyman, who was in turn son of a Mayor of Boston"; and the innkeeper was exalted as late

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as 1667, but the calling afterwards seemed to lose caste.

The Proceedings of the State Historical Society of Wisconsin of December last contain the announcement that a catalogue of the nearly 7,000 bound volumes of newspapers owned by the society will be ready in the spring. It has been a novel undertaking, and presented special difficulties.

The current *Hartford Seminary Record* attempts an estimate of the Müller Semitic library lately acquired by the Seminary, and pronounces it fit to rank, in printed books (chiefly Arabic), with any similar library on this side of the Atlantic.

The second number of Mr. P. G. Hamerton's *Portfolio* is devoted to "Malta and the Knights Hospitallers," by W. K. R. Bedford, M.A. The illustrations, as might be expected from Mr. Hamerton's experience, are attractive and instructive, although the aquatints scarce have sufficient variety of tone. The letterpress is a curious jumble of topography, antiquities, and history without order or method. Not much can be expected from a writer who solemnly tells us (p. 5), "The fields in March are red with clover blossom; the orange groves are in flower or fruit all the year long, yet there is no vacuity or want of energy about the people." Still, we might hope for accuracy in historical details which are readily accessible; but even in this we are disappointed. The military organization of the Knights of St. John was contemporary with that of the Templars, and was not postponed until after the latter had acquired "so prominent a rank in the warlike concerns of Christendom" (p. 15); nor was it only after the capture of Rhodes in 1310 that the Hospitallers first "began to attract recruits from different countries" (p. 15). When Mr. Bedford says (p. 16) of the unfortunate Djem, the brother of Bajazet II., that "he was transferred to the protection, first of the King of France, and then of the Pope (Borgia), by whom he was poisoned in 1495," he commits two blunders. It was from the hands of Alexander VI. that Djem passed into those of Charles VIII., and the story of his poisoning, though largely believed at the time, is now almost universally discredited. It is to be hoped that Mr. Hamerton will be more fortunate in the selection of contributors to future numbers.

Antarctic exploration is the subject of the first two papers in the February number of the *Scottish Geographical Magazine*. They embody the results of observations made by officers of the Dundee whaling-fleet which spent the winter of 1892-93 in these regions. Among the most important is the remarkable uniformity of temperature which prevailed; 20.8° Fahr. being the lowest, 37.6° the highest, with an average for the three months of 30.76°, the result of four hundred and twenty-nine readings. There is also a paper on the British sea fisheries, by W. L. Calderwood, containing many interesting facts, as well as suggestions as to their proper regulation; and one advocating the teaching of geography by combining physical and social facts.

The veteran African traveller Gerhardt Rohlfs sounds a note of alarm in the Cologne *Gazette* at the recent occupation of Timbuctoo by the French. He fears that the fall into Christian hands of a place second only to Mecca in the estimation of African Mohammedans will lead to a widespread agitation throughout Northern Africa, and possibly to a religious war. No traveller will now be able to cross the desert, and the construction of the trans-Saharan railway is for the present impossible. The true policy for the French to pursue is to declare that they have occupied the city only temporarily in order to reëstablish the Government, and that as soon as this is accomplished, they will voluntarily abandon their conquest.

A strikingly graphic account of the closing incident of the Matabele war, the massacre of Major Wilson's force, is given in the London *Times* by Mr. F. C. Selous, the well-known hunter and explorer. It is derived principally from the report of two American scouts named Burnum and Ingram, who, he says, "have rendered most valuable services to the expedition." These men accompanied Major Wilson in his daring pursuit of the king and retreated with him, when attacked by overwhelming numbers, to the spot where he made his last stand. Before the final assault they were sent to seek aid from the main body of the English who were encamped on the opposite bank of the Tchangani, within hearing distance of the battle-ground. It was a desperate task, as they were already surrounded by bodies of natives armed mostly with rifles, but it was safely accomplished, though all in vain.

The new *Revue de Paris* (New York: F. W. Christern) is another rival to the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, and it seems more promising and important than the *Nouvelle Revue*. Its typographic appearance is most enticing. It is edited by M. James Darmesteter and M. Louis Ganderax (formerly dramatic critic of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*). The opening number contains letters by Balzac to the lady he married fifteen years later, Renan's essay on Philo Judæus, the beginning of a story by "Gyp," and a vigorous analysis, by M. Émile Faguet, of the new editor of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, M. Brunetière. Among the announcements for the forthcoming numbers are serials by M. Paul Bourget, M. Ludovic Halévy, and M. Alphonse Daudet, shorter stories by MM. Henri Meilhac and Henri Lavedan, notes of the table-talk of Victor Hugo by M. Jules Claretie, and reminiscences by M. Sarcey and M. Sardou.

The list of Private Libraries in America now being compiled by Mr. G. Hedeler of Leipzig already includes 500 considerable libraries, but he still desires to obtain, from owners with whom he has been unable to communicate, brief details as to the extent of their treasures and the special bent of their collections. Mr. Hedeler's address is No. 3 Poststrasse.

It appears that the civil service-reform club which has just been formed at Harvard College, derived its inspiration from the collected volume of reform addresses by the late George William Curtis. The impression made by these on a student who assisted Prof. Norton in passing them through the press, resulted in the very encouraging movement to which the Harvard officials have lent prompt countenance. We improve this opportunity to note that the statement, in the volume in question, that Mr. Curtis did not deliver his last address before the Civil Service Reform League in person, is incorrect. He did so on April 28, 1892, and spoke again at the banquet in the evening in his happiest vein.

Many readers will have observed the slip by which, in our Note last week on 'Echoes of Old Florence,' we prefixed "Mr." to "Leader Scott," the *nom de plume* of Miss Lucy E. Baxter.

—No less than one-fifth of President Eliot's Harvard report is given up to the abuse of athletics in institutions of learning whose position in the judgment of the civilized world, as the dean of the Graduate School tells us a little later, finds its final test in "the work of advancing knowledge by the original researches and the joint labors of its professors and its students." President Eliot's objections to the present state of athletics might be enlarged, but they could not be better stated. His reasons for excluding freshmen altogether from intercollegiate contests are impregnable. On the scholastic side, these contests "are peculiarly injurious because they tend to lower the standard of college work at the important epoch of transition from school to college, from a régime of study under observation to a régime of large liberty." On the physical and moral side, in the language of Dean Briggs, "a freshman's whole career is hazarded for a single game with Yale." The remedy indicated is so wholesome that, if carried out, the friends of intercollegiate matches affect to believe it would be fatal to them; and their total abolition will be desirable, according to President Eliot, if the remedy fails. What we miss in his discussion is any attempt to weigh the advantages and the evils of these matches, though it is assumed that there is a tolerable equilibrium. We note that the excessive time bestowed upon athletics has naturally led the faculty to raise the minimum standard of the A. B. degree.

—Other topics of general interest are the newly established "censorship over all the examination papers," with a view to dispelling "the notion that our questions are enigmas for specialists," and establishing the examinations in the confidence of the public; the operations of the Schools Examination Board, by whom "it is the school and its teachers that are examined, not the pupils," at a cost of $120 to $250, as was found in the case of nine secondary schools examined last year; the sudden and rapid growth of the Scientific School, which has now more than twenty times as many students as it had seven years ago; the steady growth of the Graduate School, "already larger than Harvard College was fifty years ago"; the inexplicable decline in the numbers of college and scientific-school graduates in the entering classes of the Medical School; and the attraction of certain courses in the Divinity School for college undergraduates (to the extent of no less than 421 elections). As for the Law School, it has felt, on the whole to its detriment, the efforts made of late years to reduce the college term from four years to three—efforts which President Eliot still approves. The trolley and the electric lights have attacked the efficiency of the Observatory, and threaten to reduce it to the mere function of computing the results of observations at Arequipa and publishing the Annals.

—A four-sheet map of Pennsylvania on a scale of six miles to an inch, colored geologically, has recently been prepared by Mr. A. D. W. Smith under the direction of Prof. J. P. Lesley, and published by the Second Geological Survey of that State. It is a noteworthy addition to our geological libraries. The first effective geological map of Pennsylvania was published in 1858, along with the two large quarto reports by Rogers, then State Geologist. This older map was drawn by Lesley, although his name does not appear on it. The stronger topographical features were sketched in by his expressive hand, and these aided greatly in the interpretation of the geological structure. Twenty-four colors were attempted, but several of them were pale and confusingly similar; yet through the middle mountainous belt of the State the structure was

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shown with surprising correctness, judging by the small measure of the changes now introduced there. The new map is essentially a compilation of the separate county sheets of the Grand Atlas, issued several years ago; and, to the general student, the compilation adds vastly to the value of the data represented. The map has, unfortunately, no indication whatever of topographic form, so that in this sense it retrogrades somewhat from the older map—probably because it was felt that, under the sharper criticism of these later years, a sketched topography might be hazardous. Yet we greatly regret the necessity of the omission of so essential a basis, and feel that the poverty of Pennsylvania in this respect is as blamable as the similar poverty of New York; and that both are in glaring contrast to the thrifty progress of New Jersey, whose topographic sheets are probably the best of any State maps yet issued. Under the pretext of economy, but with the practice of penny wisdom and pound folly, the Legislatures of New York and Pennsylvania successfully prevent the undertaking of local topographical surveys—a mortifying indication of the character of the legislators.

—The colors of the new map follow the rather gaudy scale that was adopted on the county sheets; the lithographic work being by Bien, as heretofore in the Survey publications. The formations are as a rule easily distinguished; but we are persuaded that it is a mistake to apply pale, inconspicuous colors to those resistant rock members which determine the stronger topographical forms. In the absence of other indications of relief, strength of color might be employed to designate ridge-making formations, while paler colors were reserved for the formations on which valleys are habitually eroded; but the practice on this map is just the reverse. The Mauch Chunk red shale, for example, which always sinks into valleys, quite overpowers the pale colors of the Pocono and Pottsville sandstones on either side, although they rise in dominating ridges. In comparing the old and new maps, the changes introduced within the middle belt of Appalachian ridges are not conspicuous, as has already been said. The map here repeats the always marvellous lessons of the expression of internal structure in surface form, and of the adjustment of streams to structures, nowhere better illustrated in the world yet mapped. But in the plateau to the northwest, and in the high and low lands to the southeast of the ridges, the new map presents a great body of details not indicated in the older one. Where the plateau is deeply dissected by the west branch of the Susquehanna, the scalloping outcrops of successive formations on the hillsides are well shown—an apparently intricate pattern, but really simple in its scheme. Much additional detail is presented concerning the western coal fields and their areal distribution, as might naturally be expected from the great increase in the railroads by which that former wilderness is now so generally traversed. In the southeast, the mapping of the shales and limestones of the great valley, and of the sandstones and traps of the red sandstone belt, is greatly improved; but much remains yet to be done in the South Mountain region, as is indicated by the recent work of Miss Bascom. The limit of the drift area follows the map of ten years ago by Lewis and Wright; no additional details being introduced concerning the extra-morainic drift or the valley gravel-trains, on whose newer interpretation so great a part of glacial history depends.

—A vigorous protest against the methods of literary history now prevailing in Germany under the influence of the all-powerful school of the late Wilhelm Scherer is raised by Prof. Friedrich Braitmaier in his 'Goethekult und Goethe-philologie' (Tübingen and Leipzig: Gustav Fock). Braitmaier is himself a trained philologist; his 'Geschichte der poetischen Theorien von den Diskursen der Maler bis auf Lessing' has given him an honorable place among scientific students of literature; his criticism is, therefore, entitled to a respectful hearing, and the outcries of indignation which his words have called forth from the reigning school are nothing but an additional proof of the essential soundness of his position. At the outset he sketches, with a few telling strokes, the genesis of the present methods: how the historian Gervinus, than whom none has thus far dealt with German literature in a more comprehensive and truly scientific manner, was forced to the wall by the philologists; how Schiller, whose simple and clear-cut mental outlines offer a comparatively limited opportunity for conjectural interpretation, was thrown aside by the schoolmen; how the enigmatic figure of Goethe was seized upon by the hungry swarm of monograph writers as the most fitting subject for hairsplitting text criticism and scholastic problem-hunting. As a final move, "dry Mr. Philology became allied to bright Miss Feuilleton. Wilhelm Scherer took Herman Grimm to wife. Scherer-Grimm begat Erich Schmidt and the numerous host of professional Goethe philologists." There follows a detailed analysis of the tactics of the new school. The falsification of history in Goethe's behalf, the attempt to represent him as a statesman and patriot of the highest order, the slanderous misrepresentation of such men as Merck, Herder, and others with whom he was at loggerheads at one time or another, the effort at lowering our estimate of Friederike, Lilli, and other victims of Goethe's faithlessness, and at raising the most ignoble of his love attachments (that with Christiane Vulpius) to the level of a domestic idyl—in short, nearly all the absurdities and misconceptions of the modern Goethe mythology are brought out with more or less clearness. Next comes a chapter devoted to the demolition of Scherer's æsthetic theories. Here Braitmaier has indeed an easy game; for, of all of Scherer's ephemeral successes, perhaps none will be more ephemeral than the stir which was created some years ago by the appearance of his 'Poetik.' It seems almost incredible that a man of such undoubted critical acumen as he should have based a theory of poetry upon the fundamental axiom that "memory and imagination are essentially the same thing: a capacity for reproducing former impressions"; and Braitmaier's laughing remark that the logical consequence of this system would be to attribute the masterworks of Sophocles, Shakspere, or Goethe to defective memory is entirely in point. The greatest value, however, of this little volume lies in the fact that Braitmaier most forcibly insists on the necessity of looking at literary productions from a larger point of view than that of mere literary technique, and that he sees the task of the literary historian not so much in searching for the thousand and one different elements out of which a given production has grown together—although this, too, is a useful undertaking—as in defining its place in the intellectual, moral, and artistic development of the nation as a whole.

—The *ne plus ultra* of paternalism was perhaps reached in Constantinople under the later Byzantine Empire. A curious revelation of the details of this régime under Leo VI., surnamed "the Wise" (886-912 A. D.), is presented in a manuscript recently discovered and edited by Prof. Jules Nicole of the University of Geneva, Switzerland, under the title 'Le Livre du Préfet' (Geneva: Georg & Co.). The work is a handsome quarto of about 100 pages, containing the Greek text, a Latin translation, and a commentary in French, and offers new and valuable matter to the political economist as well as to the scholar. The Emperor prefaces his edict—as well he might—with a modest and not unjustifiable comparison of his own regulative functions to those of the Governor of the Universe. The purpose of the edict, which is issued for the guidance of the prefect, is to regulate the numerous guilds for trade and commerce which existed in Constantinople, their membership, their transactions, and their fees, to the minutest detail. The list of professions or trades touched on in the twenty-two sections includes notaries, jewellers, bankers, silk-merchants, linen-drapers, perfumers, grocers, etc. A good idea of the system may be obtained from the regulations of the silk-industry, which at that time, it will be remembered, was practically a monopoly of the Greeks, and especially of Constantinople. It was distributed among four guilds or corporations, (1) the dealers in raw silk, (2) the silk-dressers who prepared the raw material, (3) the weavers or manufacturers, (4) and finally, those who sold the manufactured fabrics. The functions of these are sharply distinguished: no corporation must perform the work of another, and no individual is allowed to belong to two corporations. Spinners, for example, if they have more of the raw silk on hand than they need, are not allowed to sell their surplus, as this would trench upon the business of No. 1. All the raw silk which comes to market is purchased in block by the corporation of silk-buyers, and is afterward partitioned among the members pro rata; individual members are forbidden to make private transactions, and the percentage of profits is in certain cases prescribed. Penalties of flogging, shaving the head, or of expulsion from the guild await the violation of these rules. If any one is detected in exporting the imperial purple silk, his hand is cut off.

—Other examples of minute interference abound. The notary or scrivener must keep but one clerk; the money-changer is not permitted to leave his stall in charge of an assistant. The prefect fixes from time to time the size of the baker's loaf. The practice of several trades is especially prohibited. The fishmonger is not allowed to catch the fish he deals in. Workmen, such as carpenters, stonecutters, and painters, are not permitted to change their occupation; if they lack employment, they must give notice to the prefect and receive formal permission from him before accepting another kind of work. Among so many regulations, a few strike one favorably: builders who botch their work are obliged to rebuild at their own expense, if an edifice falls within ten years "except by act of God." Penalties for all offences are slavish in character, such as flogging, shaving the head, mutilation; and these penalties are applied to the highest professions as well as to laborers. On the whole, it is no wonder that, at a later date, when the Turk supervened, his laxness in the supervision of commerce was a welcome and salutary change to the interests involved. Prof. Nicole's editorial work has been pe-

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formed with the thoroughness which might be expected from the editor of the Genevan Scholia on the 'Iliad.'

LETTERS OF A PIANIST.

Franz Liszt's Briefe Herausgegeben von La Mara. Leipzig: Breitkopf & Härtel. 2 vols.

FOUR years before his death Franz Liszt wrote to the German editor Otto Lessmann, in reference to a report that he (Liszt) had commenced an autobiography which he "was continuing regularly," that he, for his part, knew of no such manuscript:

"I have been asked repeatedly by publishers to write my memoirs. I declined, with the excuse that it had more than sufficed me to have lived my life, without recording it on paper. Were I married, I might indeed occasionally dictate something to my wife. But, as it is, I gladly abstain from efforts with the pen which continue to be disagreeable to me."

There are half-a-dozen other passages in the letters which La Mara (Marie Lipsius) has here collected, showing that Liszt did not write books and letters as he did his musical compositions, for the mere pleasure of writing. His collected critical and biographic essays fill six volumes, but most of them were written by way of championing neglected contemporary geniuses, not to further any literary ambition of his own. Among his correspondents, Wagner was the most favored, yet in the two volumes of the Wagner-Liszt letters the most numerous and by far the longest are Wagner's, while in the 659 additional letters now (with the exception of about 50) printed for the first time, it is easy to see that few were volunteered, the majority being answers to the notes showered upon him daily, almost hourly, by all sorts and conditions of men and women. In 1881 he wrote that he no longer made excuses for epistolary remissness: "My aversion to letters has become excessive. How is it possible to answer more than 2,000 letters a year without becoming an idiot?" To answer them all, he exclaims, he would have to devote ten hours a day to the task. It was, of course, his own extraordinary life-long amiability that had brought this deluge upon him, and he fully realized this when he wrote, in 1883, "I have a good mind to cry from the housetops some fine morning that I beg the public to consider me one of the most disagreeable, crotchety, and disobliging persons in the world." To appeals for autographs he had learned to become obdurate thirty years before this, and now at last his patience gave way entirely, and he begged Lessmann to announce in his paper that he could not in future allow his work to be interrupted by any more manuscripts sent for examination, or other uncalled-for missives. But he had reached his seventy-fourth year before he could thus make up his mind to curb his unselfish expenditure of time in the interest of others.

"Your life seems to me a grand *symphony of generosities*," he once wrote to the Baroness M. E. Schwartz, adding that the value of these benefits was increased by the discreet manner in which they were conferred, without flourish of trumpets and drums. How well these words describe Liszt's own life is unmistakably brought to light in dozens of his letters. He is constantly acknowledging receipt of manuscripts from ambitious young composers, whom he assists with advice and encouragement, whether they hail from Hungary, Germany, France, Russia, Italy, or America. Among these correspondents are such eminent ones as Franz, Grieg, Saint-Saëns, Rubinstein, Cornelius, even Brahms, and a host of minor names. He is always asking some gifted—and generally impecunious—young musician or other to come and enjoy the musical feasts at Weimar, and to be his guest during his sojourn, sometimes even paying his travelling expenses. This kindness is shown in trifling attentions as well as in services of life-long value; for instance, when Köhler once forgot his overcoat, Liszt forwarded it after filling the pockets with choice cigars. Of his colossal services to Wagner as helping friend, conductor, essayist, and diplomatist, all the world knows; but few can realize before reading these new volumes of his letters how many other musicians were similarly benefited and popularized by him. The numerous young pianists of both sexes whom he trained at Weimar have made their advantages familiar to all, but it is not generally known that in the later years of his life, when he would have greatly preferred to remain at his quiet retreat near Rome composing, he allowed himself to be persuaded to spend several months every year at Pesth, giving four lessons a week at the National Academy of Music. In answer to inquiries by one of his biographers he wrote: "Since 1847 I have not earned a penny by playing the piano, teaching, and conducting. All these things, on the contrary, have cost me time and money." In other words, during the last forty years of life all his work was done gratuitously for the general benefit of mankind—including his compositions, which were not at that time profitable, thanks to the malicious attitude of the critics.

In the world of artists, where, as Liszt says, "character is rarer even than talent," it is gratifying to meet with a man so utterly free from all the petty vices, vanities, and jealousies of his tribe. He had the virtue, so rare in Christian countries, of generosity even to his enemies. An instance of this is to be found in No. 251, vol. i., where he urges Brendel not to protest against the introduction in a certain programme of a song by Hiller, who had behaved very shabbily towards Liszt: "Although we cannot expect reciprocity in this matter, we are in duty bound to carry out simple justice and fairness consistently, and at the same time to show these gentlemen how persons of honorable disposition and decent manners behave." When Liszt writes, "If it happens once in a while that I win a success, it gives me less pleasure than that of my friends," no one who knows his character doubts for a moment the sincerity of his statement. Even in the creative sphere, where his ambition was greatest, he would keep his own claims in the background if thereby he could benefit a friend. Read, for instance, the facts given in No. 311, vol. ii., regarding Berlioz's famous arrangement of the Rákóczy march. This arrangement was based on an earlier transcription by Liszt, with original harmonies, different from those employed by the Hungarian bands. Berlioz adopted the harmonies of Liszt, who here confesses that delicate sentiments of friendship had induced him to postpone the publication of his own fuller version until after Berlioz's death. Yet there was a limit even to Liszt's amiability. He was chary in bestowing letters of recommendation which young pianists were constantly begging for, doubtless because he felt that in such cases a kindness to one may easily prove an injustice to others. He had probably heard of the doings of some of the young men and women who, after being kindly allowed to attend a few of his free classes at Weimar, went about two continents advertising themselves as "pupils of Liszt." One girl gave concerts as a cousin of Liszt, although he had never heard of such a cousin. He adds:

"Concert-givers in provincial cities often make unwarranted use of our name. In Constantinople a pianist, Herr Listmann, begged my pardon for having omitted the second syllable of his name on his programme. For this he received a costly present from the Sultan Abdul-Medjid."

In one respect the readers of Liszt's letters will be somewhat disappointed. He disliked to write about himself, his private affairs, his personal feelings. When he writes from Wagner's apartments in the Palazzo Vendramin at Venice, a few months before his great friend's death, we naturally expect a few realistic bits of description, but he simply refers to the happy family life, and adds: "But I cannot talk without awkwardness of things that touch me most deeply. Therefore it is better to keep silent." Wagner, who always poured out his heart's deepest feelings to Liszt, repeatedly reproached him for not doing the same to him; and as Liszt is usually reticent even in his correspondence with this dearest friend of his, we can hardly expect him to be more outspoken in his letters to less intimate friends. Indirectly, however, and between the lines, we can discover a touch here and there that helps us to reconstruct Liszt's personality and his habits. If Goethe's *Faust* was troubled by having "two souls, alas, within my breast," Liszt was even worse distraught, for, as a friend once told him, "You are in reality a compound of three individualities running counter to each other: the social man of the world, the virtuoso, and the creative artist and thinker." This appreciation was shrewd and just, and Liszt quotes it approvingly. Doubtless he felt that in the first of these individualities lay the danger to his character, in the second the danger to his artistic worth; and he was fully aware of these two dangers. In 1846 he wrote to a friend: "My sojourn at Pesth might be of serious value, were it not for the fact that the *Byronic* element which you combat in me is asserting itself with more and more prominence." On this Byronic element Liszt's friends do not care to dwell, although they might advance the apology that he shared his moral weakness with most men of artistic genius, whereas his virtues are of a kind that is rare in the world to which he belonged.

In politics Liszt took little interest, although he knew personally most of the crowned heads and minor aristocrats of Europe, and in Nos. 120 and 311, volume ii., he reports two interesting conversations with Napoleon III. and the Czar Nicholas of Russia. He did, however, believe in genuine *active* patriotism, as he proved by his readiness to go to Paris in 1878 to serve as Hungarian member of the international jury, and his unselfish yearly sacrifice of several months of his time at the Pesth Academy; all this in spite of his aversion to travelling, which grew stronger every year. Yet he was condemned to divide his time between Weimar, Pesth, and Rome. His great desire was to spend the last years of his life in Italy, at his writing-desk. During the first part of his Roman sojourn he was the guest of Cardinal Hohenlohe at the Vatican; afterwards the residence was transferred to the Villa d'Este, several hours' distance from Rome. With this villa and its surroundings Liszt was so delighted that he actually more than once indulged in a few lines of description of it—the only instance of the kind in all his correspondence. Yet even here he was not permitted to compose uninterruptedly: his tormentors and visitors followed him even at

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this distance, and he complains of necessary "visits, duties of politeness, musical fledglings, extensive and mostly useless correspondence." In Rome itself he had been "excessively annoyed," as he said, by all these interruptions, until he felt inclined to be "positively rude in order to keep these people at bay." In 1882 he wrote from Venice that he had resolved to be very economical as to paying visits: "Wagner makes none, and I shall imitate his example to the best of my ability."

But these social interruptions were not the main reasons why he spoke of himself as "a poor tormented man." What annoyed him more than anything else was the persistence with which people continued to ignore his work as a composer while trying to flatter him with allusions to his "former triumphal tours," his "unrivalled mastery of the piano," etc., "until it became positively nauseous, like stale, tepid champagne." As early as 1837 we find him wondering whether he was to be condemned for ever "à ce métier de baladin et d'amuseur de salons." In a few years this business of amusing mixed audiences became so distasteful to him that he ceased playing in public altogether, except when some monster calamity or occasion of artistic charity induced him to volunteer his services.

Although the piano was not entirely abandoned, we find Liszt in the last forty years of his life busy chiefly in other musical fields: first with his symphonic poems and symphonies, then with his songs, and finally with his sacred compositions. There is also an allusion to an early opera, but that plan was abandoned. In turning to the orchestra he found his thirty years' devotion to the piano a disadvantage at the beginning, and he was compelled to make many changes and improvements after the first performances, whereas Wagner's orchestral instinct, having been trained from his boyhood, became in his later period so infallible that he hardly ever was called upon to make any alteration. In view of this difference, it is surprising that Liszt should have achieved such brilliant results as an orchestrator. He is often strikingly original, especially in the ingenious use of the instruments of percussion, which, it should be added, he defends in an important letter (vol. i., No. 280) against those who assert that such instruments have no legitimate place on the concert stage. It is their abuse that has led to the questioning of their use. Liszt valued them as a means of emphasizing the rhythm, not for their capacity to rival the noise of a Chinese band in a murder scene. This same letter, which cannot be too highly commended to musical students, also contains some luminous remarks on Liszt's conception of musical form.

Occasionally we catch a glimpse of the composer at work on a symphonic poem, an oratorio, or a psalm "written with tears of blood"; unfortunately, they are for the most part glimpses only, where egotistic details would have been most welcome, in place of the altruistic business and shop-talk which takes up too much space in these letters. Liszt was modest —excessively so—in his estimate of his own creative powers; for instance, when Benfey had written a pamphlet entitled 'Beethoven and Liszt,' he wrote that this juxtaposition reminded him of a scene he had witnessed in his youth in the Jardin des Plantes in Paris—a harmless poodle caged as companion to a majestic lion. Still, he knew that he had contributed some immortal works of absolute originality to musical literature, and that the critics did not treat him fairly. To these critics there are many bitter or sarcastic allusions in the correspondence. Some critics, no doubt, were honest and simply Philistine—that is, impervious to new ideas and impressions—but others fully deserved the charges of persistent malice and mendacity which he brings against them. History has shown once more that negative criticism, when opposed to the truth, is impotent. In 1877 Liszt wrote regarding his symphonic poems that, "notwithstanding the abundant censure, ignoring, and abuse which these works have endured during the last twenty years, they have not perhaps been quite killed yet." Almost twenty years more have since elapsed, and these works are more frequently performed than ever, although it is still the critical fashion to abuse them.

Liszt's own criticisms of other composers constitute the most entertaining and valuable part of his letters. His own maxim appears to have been that it was better that five guilty composers should escape with undeserved praise than that one deserving one should languish in neglect. No harm was done by the attention he momentarily attracted or the encouragement he gave to certain mediocrities; but a great deal of good resulted from his championship of modern composers who were in danger of succumbing to the incompetence of conductors, the obtuseness of critics, and the indifference of the public. The term "modern composers," as here used, must be interpreted to include even Schubert, to whose fame and full appreciation Liszt contributed more than any one (except perhaps Schumann), as essayist, conductor, and pianist. In the days when he was giving concerts, most singers were of the "Italian school"—that is, there were few who had sufficient appreciation of the higher emotional elements of their art to be able to do justice to Schubert's songs; consequently an inestimable service was done to them by Liszt's transcriptions and performances of many of them. Some he also arranged for orchestra, and at Weimar he made an effort in behalf of Schubert's operas, which have never had justice done to them on account of their atrocious librettos. In his correspondence we find him especially active in behalf of Schubert's pianoforte works, concerning which he writes to Prof. Lebert: "Our pianists have scarcely the remotest conception of the delightful treasure we possess in Schubert's pianoforte compositions." He selected and edited a collection of them for Lebert's edition, and he calls attention, among other things, to the fact that in Schubert's little waltzes is to be found more originality than in many of the most ambitious works of all times.

These enthusiastic efforts in behalf of Schubert (and of many other composers) show that we must not take Liszt too literally when he writes to Schumann (1838), that his (Schumann's) works and Chopin's are the only ones which have a deep interest for him. The sixth letter of the first volume is an amusing one, written by Liszt and Chopin in alternate sentences. One of Chopin's sentences is: "I wish I could steal from him [Liszt] his way of playing my own études." The letters now before us contain several eloquent passages on Chopin, correcting popular misconceptions. To Lenz he writes: "You exaggerate, also, I think, the influence of the Parisian salons on Chopin. His soul was not affected by them, and his artistic work remains lucid, marvellous, ethereal, and of an incomparable genius—exalted above the errors of schools and the insipidities of the salon."

Liszt's relations to Schumann are fully discussed in No. 172, volume i., in which he regretfully explains how it came about that, after some vain attempts with this composer's pianoforte works, which he admired so intensely, he was led to neglect them for a time. At the same time he recalls his labors at Weimar in behalf of Schumann's choral works and his opera "Genoveva," which he happily calls "the sister of 'Fidelio,' but without *Leonora's* pistol." Of special interest is letter No. 347, volume ii., in which Liszt shows that Berlioz, who called the unappreciative Parisians "gredins," and "crétins," was in reality much more favored officially by his countrymen than Beethoven, Weber, Schubert, and Schumann (he might have added Bach and Mozart) were while alive by their countrymen. Of living composers most frequent mention is here made of St.-Saëns and Rubinstein, with both of whom Liszt corresponded. He favored St.-Saëns with advice and praise as a composer, speaks of him as the greatest of organists, and, two years before his own death, pays him this neat compliment: "When I now write music, I often ask myself in this or that place, 'Will it please St.-Saëns?'" Rubinstein, too, was greatly benefited by Liszt, who sought publishers and performances for his works, though he was aware of the differences in their opinion and ideals. He usually alludes to him as "Van II.," on account of the resemblance in his appearance to Beethoven. It seems that Rubinstein once, when Liszt's guest, mysteriously disappeared in order to avoid hearing a piece by Berlioz. All of Liszt's efforts to convert him to the new school failed. Unfortunately, too, Rubinstein paid no attention to the advice, in 1854, to curb his excessive productivity and compose more carefully. To Brendel Liszt wrote:

"He is a splendid fellow, possesses exceptional talent and character; therefore, no one can be more just to him than I have been for years. I have no desire, however, to preach, and he may wear off his horns as he pleases, and continue to fish in Mendelssohnian waters, or even swim in them, if he can."

An English version of these two volumes of Liszt's Letters was announced some time ago, but has been delayed by the illness of the translator, Miss Bache, sister of the great Liszt champion in London. Breitkopf & Härtel have just issued a supplementary volume of Liszt's letters to "a friend in Brussels" (probably Mme. Tardieu), and have completed Lina Ramann's biography of Liszt in three volumes. It is probable that there will be a fourth volume of letters later on, as the correspondence with his mother and daughter (Frau Cosima Wagner), with the Countess d'Agoult, the Princess von Wittgenstein, Berlioz, Tausig, Prince Lichnowsky, Joseffy, and others is not included in the above collections.

JEBB'S CLASSICAL GREEK POETRY.

The Growth and Influence of Classical Greek Poetry. By R. C. Jebb, Regius Professor of Greek in the University of Cambridge. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1893.

It is a pleasure to reflect that if we cannot claim this admirable volume for one of our own scholars, we can at least take the credit of suggesting and encouraging its production. These lectures were delivered at the Johns Hopkins University, they are dedicated to President Gilman, and are printed by an American firm. They are prefaced by a touching epigram, in which the editor of Sophocles gracefully alludes to that blighted youthful promise which the Turnbull Lectureship was founded to commemorate. This epigram is in

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itself a slight but significant token of the many gifts and acquirements which render its author so peculiarly fitted to treat an old subject with the freshness, the sympathy, and the thoroughness of a master.

The introductory chapter has the rare merit of presenting in a clear and precise manner the significance of the appearance of Homeric poetry—the fact that it is, in truth, the beginning of European literature. In all Europe and Asia and Africa, at that period, there was nothing like this mysterious apparition—so marvellous, so transcendent that certain pious littérateurs have explained Homer as a special miracle, who made the 'Iliad' and the 'Odyssey,' so to speak, out of his own Olympian head. And this is only another way of expressing the unique character of this poetic outbreak, as compared with any product of Egyptian or Chaldean or Phœnician intellect. If we take an inventory of the literary stock of the world in the tenth century A. C., we find in Egypt some hymns and religious texts, state records, a few biographies, some fables or folk-tales—the sole product of an immemorial civilization, whose literature had become stereotyped into formulas, and "stricken," to use Mr. Jebb's phrase, "with intellectual barrenness." In Assyria we encounter the bombastic chronicles of a Tiglath-Pileser—the same literary poverty and dryness as in Egypt, with even less imagination and spirituality, save in those early Chaldean fragments of the epics of Ishtar and of Isdubar. Among the Phœnicians, the commercial spirit, with all its enterprise, has issued in nothing but successful imitation and diffusion of their neighbors' arts and acquirements. In contrast with this frozen waste of priestly or official formulas, "swims into our ken" the sunny world of Homeric imagination, a world where human life and affections have free play in the open air, where the beauty of nature and of human intercourse is not only felt keenly, but for the first time adequately expressed. It is a society delivered alike from despots and from priests, free from the fetters of Egyptian sacerdotalism and from the hobgoblins of Assyrian superstition. In it, says Mr. Jebb, "the hieratic spirit has given place to the lay spirit."

If we are to take into account at all in this comparison the Sanskrit epic whose period is so dubious, we find in the 'Mahâbhârata' a vast conglomerate which is to the Homeric epos as a jungle to a landscape of the Aegean. Measure and proportion are gone; some of the episodes are the mere midsummer madness of the dreaming Oriental brain. The best of these with which translators have made us familiar offer interesting pictures of life, and a romantic sentiment that appeals to the modern mind; but, even in these, the original, if we may trust our present texts, shows an incurable tendency to exaggeration, to rhetorical and childish tricks of expression, which contrast strongly with the straightforwardness, the pure taste, and the natural self-restraint of the 'Iliad' and the 'Odyssey.' With all its capacity for verbal *tours de force*, the Sanskrit, with its unwieldy compounds and its inorganic sentence-structure, lacks a refinement, a flexibility, a precision, of which the Homeric poetry first suggested the possibility, and Plato's prose the final triumph of development.

Passing by Mr. Jebb's analysis of Homeric types and styles, in which he rightly discerns "the promise and potency" of all subsequent development in Greek life and character and poetry, we turn to the elaborate chapter he has done well to bestow on Pindar. None of the Greek poets is so remote from us, none needs more the friendly aid and illumination of the antiquarian's magic telescope. Even Fitz Gerald finds him hard to get at, and is evidently rather bored by the imaginative grandiloquence he expends upon the jockeys and the "sluggers." In fact, Pindar shows us a phase of life that is clean gone out of our sight and conception, unless it be shadowed forth dimly by the contests of Matthew Arnold's "barbarians" on the Cam and the Isis and the Thames. Our own sophisticated football captains would smile at the wreath of laurel or of olive, and at the innocence of a people who understood so little how to turn an honest penny out of their sport. Yet the spectacle at Olympia really showed at its height the Greek gift of gilding and ennobling what with other races has usually sunk into vulgar and sordid brutality. Athletics, presided over by grave and reverend judges in purple robes of office, dignified by religious ceremonial and associations, made brilliant by the presence of all that was beautiful in nature and in art, linked by golden chains of poesy with heroic legend and historic memories, and reserving a quiet corner for Lysias or Herodotus—this was perhaps the crowning triumph of Greek taste, the peculiar offering to the Graces, at which Pindar assisted as high priest and *sacer vates*. That inmost shrine is hard for us to penetrate who breathe all day the smoke of Mr. Gradgrind's factories, and gather once a year to see the choicest of our youth earn their "gate-money" and contend in the sympathetic presence of gamblers and of blacklegs. It is a long step from these to the young "sprinter" Asopichus and his choir of comrades chanting Pindar's hymn to the "Queen-graces who bestow on mortals all that is sweet and pleasant—beauty and the poet's skill, and resplendent victory."

The balance and delicacy of Mr. Jebb's judgment are shown conspicuously in his estimate of the complex and puzzling genius of Euripides. "He has the qualities," says Prof. Jebb, "by which he became the first prophet of a cosmopolitan humanity." The romantic coloring of his plays, his understanding of the heart and the lot of women, his sense of the beauty of nature, his poignant feeling of human sorrows and burdens, his moods of doubt, perplexity, and melancholy, are all kindred to the modern mind; "in one phase or another of his reflections he has a kinship with the troubled spirits of every race and century." For these reasons he demands no special interpreter, no historical training and imagination. He appeals alike to the Parthian Orodes, to Ennius and Cicero, to the Christian Clemens of Alexandria. He opens the door upon the new comedy of Menander and of Terence—on the distant vista, beyond the centuries, of Corneille and Racine. He stands, that is to say, upon the threshold of two worlds, the old Hellenic world that was fading out of existence, the new Hellenistic world that was waiting to be born. In all these tendencies he did not merely swim with the current; he is not following the taste of his public so much as prescribing it. "He was not driven to his reform," says our critic, "he imposed it." He replaced, for example, the radiant Jason of Pindar's Pythian ode by the pitiful Jason of the "Medea." He had broken with the heroic ideals and the heroic manner. Yet, in deposing the Homeric heroes from their pedestal, he was taking away the only ideals to which the men of his age looked back and aspired. By his rationalism, his sophistry, his new-fangled notions, he was employing the Dionysiac theatre and festival against the very deity who gave sanction to Comedy as well as Tragedy. Hence it was by an unerring instinct that Aristophanes directed against him the satire of the "Acharnians" and the "Frogs." From his point of view Aristophanes was perfectly right. He could not divine that what to him meant iconoclasm and corruption, was in reality the breaking of the shell, the opening life of a new order of ideas.

We have mentioned the criticism contained in the "Frogs"; and this recalls a peculiar fortune which the best Greek poetry enjoyed—a fortune, as Prof. Jebb remarks, unparalleled in the history of literature. Before the Alexandrian period, indeed, Greek poetry was not literature in our modern sense; whether epic or lyric or dramatic, it appealed directly to hearers rather than to readers—and to what hearers! To the sort of judges who, during half a century of the Periclean age, awarded the first prize a score of times to that severe height of literary art which parallels the perfections of Phidias—that is to say, to the dramas of Sophocles. Compare such recognition with the fortune of Dante, or of Shakspere, or of Milton. Think of the aid and comfort such a public must have afforded to genius; of the wholesome discomfiture it administered to poetasters and pretenders. True, this public made mistakes occasionally, and crowned an inferior dramatist who could command a more costly and magnificent chorus. But in the main the great poet had the privilege which now survives only to the orator or preacher. He could keep directly in touch with his audience—an audience whose sympathy, whose intelligence, whose sanity of taste were unexampled; who could tolerate nothing insincere, nothing frigid and false in sentiment, nothing affected in expression; who, on the other hand, responded with inspiring geniality and enthusiasm to the best and greatest that was offered them. Thus "their great poetry," says Mr. Jebb, "was not merely inspired by life, it was regulated by life." We read a good deal nowadays about the uselessness of the critic, his superfluity, and his naughtiness; but if the function of the critic is to admire with discrimination and condemn with reason, who except the greatest can afford to dispense with the regulative and life-giving influence that flows from a large body of intelligent and responsive minds like those twenty or thirty thousand who sat in the Dionysian theatre at Athens?—a body which was neither an academy, nor a mob, nor an isolated censor, remote and unknown, possibly hostile and unsympathetic. How admirable must have been that action and reaction of wits in keeping a man to his best work, with a comforting sense that he was not throwing his pearls before swine—in keeping him from the wilfulness, the bizarreries, the misspent time of the author who now shuts himself up in his study and his theories, and has no electric communication with an audience of sensible and critical readers. And this reflection leads us naturally to the final trait which Prof. Jebb notes as characteristic of the great period of true Hellenic poetry—its essential moral purity—a purity which runs in the blood of the great line of bards that succeeded the creator of Nausicaa and Penelope, and which is naturally joined with the sanity, the beauty, and the faith that animated their poetry. Compare such a public, taught by such moralists as Æschylus and Sophocles, with the relation that now subsists between our "enterprising" press and its readers—that frowsy Circe who manufactures swine and feeds them daily after their kind.

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If any claim in this brief summary seems extravagant, the fault must not be laid at Prof. Jebb's door, for he writes with the moderation of one who has adequately surveyed the wide field of letters, who is fully aware that modern literature exists, and, filling its own needs, can never be squared down to the narrow yet ideal perfections of the period which he treats. His book is popular in that it demands no previous knowledge of the subject, and presents its subject with the charm of a finished man of letters—a charm which is traditionally supposed to be the offspring of the studies he professes; but it is scholarly inasmuch as no sentence is written at random, without due warrant in the researches of a lifetime. No general survey in English presents so clearly the value of Greek poetry in the history of literature, the surprising phenomenon of its first dawning on the world, and its vital relation to the later growths of the centuries.

CABINET GOVERNMENT.—I.

Les Ministres dans les principaux pays d'Europe et d'Amérique. Par L. Dupriez, Professeur à l'Université de Louvain. Paris: J. Rothschild. 1893.

THIS work is preceded by a report made by the Comte de Franqueville, Member of the Institute (whose name alone is a sufficient imprimatur), to the Academy of Moral and Political Science, relating to a competition upon the subject of the book for the Odilon Barrot prize. As the report justly says, there is perhaps no subject in the whole domain of constitutional law more important, or, on the whole, more delicate to treat. In the century's experience of popular government, public attention has been almost wholly absorbed by the representative branch—that is, the Legislature. Whether this should consist of one chamber or two, the number of each, how they are to be elected and by how wide a suffrage; whether minorities should be represented; how the quality and purity of the legislative bodies are to be maintained—these are the chief topics of interest and discussion. But as to the relations of the Executive and the Legislature, the respective functions of each, and in general the constitution of executive power, these are things to which it seems almost impossible to attract public attention in this country. And the reason is very simple. All our constitutions are based upon the principle of the separation of legislative and executive power, but none of them defines the limits of these powers. In practice it is left to the legislatures to fix these limits, which they do by reducing the nominal executive to a cipher or a tool in their hands. The executive officers, having no means of resistance, yield without opposition, and the people, hearing only one side, are not aware of the danger. Hence the value of a work which sets forth the executive side of the question.

After noticing the other essays submitted, the report says:

"It remains for us to speak of one other memoir, which has appeared to us very notably superior to all the others, and to which, by a unanimous vote, the section proposes to you to award the prize of Odilon Barrot. The work is recommended by most important merits—clearness of exposition, exactitude of investigation, profound study of the subject; while the author has the further advantage of treating the question from the point of view of the jurisconsult and not of the politician."

Agreeing thoroughly with this view, we find it difficult to express the degree of our admiration, which can be appreciated only by those who, having long groped about for a particular kind of information, have suddenly found it set forth with almost startling clearness.

The first volume treats of the constitutional monarchies, England, Belgium, Italy, and Prussia, with an added survey of the German empire. The second volume is devoted to the leading republics, the United States of America, Switzerland, and France. All these divisions are classified under corresponding heads—thus, for the monarchies, "The Cabinet and the Constitution," "The Ministers and the King," "The Ministers and the Chambers," "The Ministers and the Administration"—with a separate section, one of the most striking in the book, on the position of the Chancellor in the German empire. For the republics the classification is the same, "The Ministers and the Constitution," "The Ministers and the President" (except in Switzerland), "The Ministers and the Chambers," "The Ministers and the Administration." The mere arrangement shows how interesting the comparison may be made.

The English system of cabinet government is more or less familiar to all Americans who have examined constitutional law at all; and yet that system, which has furnished the basis for all modern parliamentary practice, and is certainly one of the most important political discoveries ever made, grew up silently and almost unperceived during two centuries, and has only within a generation become an object of conscious study and analysis. No doubt it is the result of gradually formed usages; but, as M. Dupriez remarks, that is the case with all constitutions:

"The lawmaker can enumerate in a text the rights of the great political powers, regulate their organization up to a certain point, determine the exterior forms of their action; he is powerless to control the exact position of authority which each shall possess. That is a question which can be decided only by the relative strength of the several powers. Constitutional usages only establish the result of the struggle which inevitably arises between them."

It would be hardly possible to condense more perfectly in one paragraph the political history of the United States.

Belgium, for the last half century, has been among those happy countries which have had no history, though the recent extension from a very narrow to almost universal suffrage would hold out the expectation of interesting developments of her constitutional machinery, if she did not seem in danger of being ground out of existence by the upper and the nether millstones of Europe, which threaten soon to exert their terrible friction. M. Dupriez's clear analysis is ready for the student when it is wanted. For the rest the Belgian approaches more nearly than any other of the parliamentary governments to the English type.

The disastrous condition of Italy is attracting universal attention. That within twenty-five years of the glorious history of her consolidation, and in a time of general peace, she should have landed in bankruptcy, with a forced paper currency at a heavy discount, a serious annual deficit in the budget, and such an exodus of population as seems justified only by pestilence, points to some deep-seated cause. The apparent one is the triple alliance and the heavy burden of military and naval armament, but that is only a part. With well-ordered finances the burden could be borne, but the finances are not well ordered, and finances in disorder mean bad government. The pages of M. Dupriez lay bare the whole anatomy. The first difficulty which he finds with parliamentary government in Italy is in the condition of political parties. At the outset there was a great anti-constitutional party, consisting of the clericals and their allies, who refused to have anything to do with politics at all, while as to the rest the breaking up into political groups prevented the formation of any stable majority. But as the ministry depends upon a majority for its existence, it is driven to all sorts of expedients to form and maintain one. The result is, that the ministry has no power of resistance against the encroachments of the chambers. It is reduced to begging for the support of members by distributing among their constituents Government favors and places. It cannot turn for support to the King, who, as a constitutional monarch, can have no will as against the chambers. It cannot turn to the people, because the people does not elect its executive and has no idea of looking to it as the agent of all, while the people does elect its deputies and naturally supports them. The deputy himself, often elected on special grounds by a coalition of discordant elements, is not a representative of ideas and principles. He is only the organ of local interests; the agent, the solicitor, the patron of those who gave him his place.

"The standing committees have assumed in Italy an exaggerated importance, to the detriment of the ministerial influence. The cabinet, far from finding in the members of these committees and their reporters [that is, those who report their conclusions to the Chamber] devoted partisans, often meet among them uncertain friends, whose ambition and whose personal interests are not held in check by party discipline, or else hidden enemies, always ready to apply a checkmate. Sometimes the Government plans come from their hands wholly transformed; at other times these plans find themselves opposed by counter projects, starting from totally opposite principles. Sometimes the work of the committee is conducted with a calculated slowness, and the Government and the Chamber are powerless before this obstruction."

The results of this state of things are apparent in two departments of deep interest to the people of this country, the finances and the civil service.

(1.) "The Italian ministers do not enjoy an authority stable or strong enough to remain the sole guides of financial policy. It is especially in the discussion of the budgets that their influence is found to be counterbalanced and compromised by the existence of this standing committee which centres in itself the consideration of all plans. Powerful as well by the importance of its work as by the number and the authority of its members, the committee uses its power not only to exercise complete control in the revision of the plans submitted to it, but even to direct the policy of the Government and to thrust its hand into the administration. It is rarely that a ministry can contend openly with the conclusions of the budget commission and its reporter. Often it finds itself forced to accept compromises of which the Treasury almost always pays the cost. Suppose, for instance, that the ministry has proposed an increase of credit which it thought necessary for the public services. The reporter refuses it under pretext of rigorous economy, but yields in the end, provided there is an equal increase of credit for some establishment of interest to his province."

(2.) As to the civil service:

"The minister, absolute master of his subordinates, finds his own master in the deputies who support him. The omnipotence of the cabinet over the Administration is equalled only by its servility towards the parliamentary majority. It has to put its exaggerated authority at the disposal of its partisans upon pain of seeing itself overturned by them. The functionary has not merely to fear the arbitrary will of a superior, upon whom rests, after all, a certain responsibility; he has to dread besides the caprices of deputies who

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have no direct authority over him, and can yet exercise a decisive influence upon his fate, the real instigators of acts of which they throw the responsibility upon others."

If in Italy the executive is too weak and overpowered by the chambers, M. Dupriez sets forth in dramatic contrast the rather thin semblance of parliamentary government in Prussia and the German empire:

"In Prussia the result of the struggle has been very different. Royalty, forced to abandon a part of its powers to the national representation, has known how to defend successfully all the rights which it had reserved for itself, and has even had strength enough to annul virtually more than one restriction upon its liberty of action. . . . The constitutional provisions gave to the King the right of naming and revoking the ministers; this right he has persisted in exercising in perfect freedom without permitting the chambers to limit it by their intervention. The ministers are then fully responsible for all their acts to him alone. They have not been called to power by the Landtag, and, whatever distrust that body may feel towards them, they will remain at their post as long as the royal favor keeps them there.

"Supported by the royal power, the ministers have profited by their strength to restrict as much as possible the rights of the chambers, or at least to destroy their effects. Though not necessarily members, the right of ministers to be heard upon any subject extends to the sessions both of the chambers and of the committees. The 'floor' can never be refused them; they can speak even after closure of the discussion has been voted, and thus reopen debate. While a simple member of the Landtag can speak only once upon the same subject, any minister can demand the floor as often as he pleases, and the president must give it to him as soon as the member who is speaking has finished, in preference to all the members whose names are down before him. If an 'interpellation' is addressed to them, the ministers answer what they please, or refuse all explanation. If the Chamber insists upon discussing it, they show how much they care by abruptly quitting the hall and not coming back before the end of the discussion. If the chambers appoint a committee of investigation, the Government will forbid officials to answer their inquiries, and will openly declare in the Landtag 'that a committee appointed contrary to the wish of the Government cannot expect to enjoy the co-operation of the Government.' In a word, their responsibility to the chambers is always in the condition of a constitutional principle without possible effect."

The best illustration of the result is, that the Government, having carried on the business of the country for four years, 1862–66, without any regular budget, obtained a bill of indemnity after the success of the campaign in Austria. "The conflicts of powers always degenerate into a question of strength," said Prince Bismarck one day, and, sure of his strength, he did not try to cover his conduct with an appearance of legality. Yet in Prussia the tenure of the civil service is permanent during good behavior, as it always is where the executive is strong, because it is for the interest of the executive to make it so. In Great Britain, which has the strongest executive of any really constitutional government, the "spoils system" has been wholly done away with. It is in France, Italy, and the United States, where the executive is completely subject to the legislature, that that system flourishes in full vigor.

The ingenious way in which the constitution of the German empire has bettered that of Prussia is set forth by M. Dupriez in an amusing manner; but we cannot follow him in detail. The institution of a single minister, president of the Federal Council, is wholly original and unlike that of any other State. It may be a matter of surprise that the imperial constitution, in so many respects copied from that of Prussia, did not establish by the side of the Emperor a council of ministers similar to the Prussian ministry of state. The proposal was made under various forms in the Reichstag, when the plan of the constitution was under discussion, but Prince Bismarck opposed it with all his might.

"In fact, the Prussian Government wished above all to prevent the parliamentary system from taking root in the empire. It rejected the institution of a council of ministers borrowed expressly from this form of government, and, for the rest, asked for with a view to the establishment of this form. The conflict between the King and the Chamber of Deputies in Prussia had just terminated in the victory of the former; but this victory, which might be attributed to contingent causes, did not appear to be definitive, nor even necessarily to have durable effects. New struggles might arise, after the enthusiasm excited by recent triumphs had cooled off. To establish personal government in the empire, it was necessary not to accept an institution like a council of ministers, which would have reminded the Reichstag of parliamentary governments, and might have given the desire of resuming against the Emperor a struggle in which the Landtag had just succumbed.

"Seeking, on the contrary, a model in the national traditions, the Prussian Government revived in the new German Confederation an institution of the old Germanic empire. By the institution of the Chancellor, as it was organized, the Constitution centralized in the highest degree in one powerful hand all the activity of the imperial powers: it placed over all the branches of the administration a single chief, in order to impress upon their action the strictest unity of views: it placed this same chief at the head of the Federal Council, where the autonomist tendencies of the small States were to find expression, in order that he might watch over and repress them; finally, it exposed singly to the attacks of the Reichstag a man who had shown in the Prussian Landtag his power of resistance to the blows of a parliament. 'The chiefs of administration of the Empire,' said Prince Bismarck to the Reichstag in 1881, 'are not responsible for me, it is I who am responsible for them; it is I who have to choose them in such a manner that they are political men, approving of the general direction of the empire, and for whom I assume the responsibility. And from the moment that I no longer receive from them this approbation, it becomes my duty to say to them, We can no longer continue in office together.'"

This explanation throws some light upon the separation between Prince Bismarck and the young Emperor William II. It reads as if we were transported back to the times of Wolsey and Richelieu.

In the Land of Cave and Cliff Dwellers. By Lieut. Frederick Schwatka. Cassell Publishing Co.

THIS volume of 384 pages, 12mo, bears a deceptive title. So far from being, primarily, an account of the uncivilized portion of the Tarahumari, as these cliff-dwelling Indians are called, it is, in great part, taken up with descriptions of a visit to Guaymas, and of an excursion which the author made to certain mining districts in the Sierra Madre Mountains of Chihuahua. Seven of the ten chapters into which the book is divided are, in fact, given up to these trips; and while there is no objection to the way in which the story of Lieut. Schwatka's travels is told, yet, with deference be it said, this is not the feast to which we were invited. What we wanted, and what, from the title of the work, we were led to expect, was a statement of the writer's observations and experiences among these savages, and this we do not get. Unquestionably, during his trip through the mountains, he saw a number of cave and cliff dwellings, and no doubt he caught distant views of some of their occupants, but apparently he did not come into actual contact with any of them, as he did with some of the "civilized" members of the tribe. Consequently, in what he tells of their mode of life, etc., he had to depend upon hearsay, previous report, and an occasional glimpse of some of these people as they flitted among the rocks and trees in their efforts to escape observation. This, of course, was unfortunate, but it does not necessarily cast a doubt upon his statements. Indeed, so far is this from being the case that, in the present instance, it may have been an advantage, for it led our author to give us, in place of his own impressions, the accounts of those whose opportunities for investigation seem to have been better than any he could have enjoyed in the course of a short and relatively hasty journey on mule-back.

Of these accounts, the one by Bandelier (Final Report, part I., pp. 98, 244) is probably as satisfactory as any. He, first among recent explorers, called our attention to the existence of these cliff-dwellers; and though he did not see any of them, yet he vouches for the truth of what he heard about them, and, moreover, he tells us in a few paragraphs what is here spread over several chapters. Summarizing these different accounts, we find that these Indians live in southwestern Chihuahua, and that their number is variously estimated at from fifteen to thirty thousand souls. They are well formed, of swarthy appearance, and are divided into two great "sections or factions," who have "different habits and ways of living, and hold no intercourse with each other, though they occupy the same region." Of these two sections, the civilized portion, or "Christians," live in villages, in log and adobe houses, cultivate corn, do a little trading, and are not unlike their Mexican neighbors in their general manner of life. The other section of the tribe—the uncivilized, or "Gentiles"—live in caves in the sides of the mountains, in holes burrowed under the curving base of some boulder, and in cavities weathered in the face of the cliffs. They, too, cultivate corn in a small way, and tend a few goats, but they depend, for their food, chiefly upon the chase. They are shy, run away on the appearance of a white man, and have Eden-like notions as to their clothing. This is, practically, all that is known about these people, though our author tells a curious story of the deference paid by them to a "mace or sceptre, called God's justice," which reminds us, in a fashion, of the deference paid to the calumet by the Indians of the Mississippi valley. He also relates several instances of the speed and endurance of these Indians, which may be true, though they test our credulity severely.

The volume is illustrated, or said to be, and there are a number of pictures of caves, cliff-houses, and natural scenery. We doubt, however, whether they are of a character to help any one to a better understanding of the text.

The First Stages of the Tariff Policy of the United States. By William Hill, A.M., sometime Henry Lee Memorial Fellow in Harvard University; Tutor in Political Economy in the University of Chicago. Published by the American Economic Association. 8vo, pp. 162. 1893.

NOTHING has been more curious in the tariff history of the United States than the desire, both of the protectionists and of the free-traders, to show that the fathers of the country were really on their side. Snatches from the writings of Washington, Jefferson, Hamilton, and Madison have been quoted for campaign effect by both sides, and the tariff act of 1789 has been cited as an illustration of the beauties

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both of protection and of free trade. Under these circumstances a detailed and careful investigation of the truth of the matter is welcome, and such we have in Mr. Hill's monograph, which shows careful use of the sources, and the impartial spirit of science. It is a valuable contribution to the history of our tariff legislation and of the genesis of the national Government, creditable to its author and worthy a place in the publications of the Economic Association.

Mr. Hill traces the course of tariff legislation in the colonies before the Revolution, and finds a pretty general system of duties, imposed almost exclusively for revenue. After the Revolutionary war, the several States at first were enthusiastically in favor of a liberal policy in foreign trade, and imposed duties sparingly and for purposes of revenue only. Massachusetts, in 1782, when compelled to levy import duties by the pressing need of revenue, stated, in so many words, in the preamble to an act imposing duties of 2½ and 5 per cent.: "Whereas, all restrictions upon trade have been found to be highly injurious to those countries which derive a great part of their wealth and strength from commerce, . . . be it enacted that this act shall continue and be enforced until six months after peace, and no longer." But this first burst of liberal feeling was followed within a year or two by an equally strong feeling for restriction and protection. The change was unquestionably due to the selfish and narrow-minded policy of Great Britain, and her application to the States of the extreme mercantile policy. One State after another, by way of retaliation against Great Britain, passed protective tariff acts. Massachusetts, in which the shipping interest was strong, was hit particularly hard by the restrictions which Great Britain imposed on commerce with her colonies, and especially with the West Indies; and in 1786 she passed an act which absolutely prohibited the importation of a great variety of manufactures. Pennsylvania also passed a protective tariff act. Rhode Island and New York moved in the same direction. The whole temper of the community was changed.

All this had a distinct effect on the tariff act of 1789. After the formation of the Union, Congress proceeded at once to the imperative task of providing revenue for the new government, and the tariff act was the first measure passed. Mr. Hill shows conclusively not only that it was designed to secure revenue, but that there were incorporated into it many provisions of the protective legislation of the individual States, notably of Pennsylvania. That the duties were moderate, in comparison with the exactions of our later day, is not essential to the spirit of the act, which was unquestionably protective.

Mr. Hill's investigation does not carry him beyond the act of 1789, and he has no occasion to note the unmistakable decline in the protective feeling which began within a year or two thereafter. That decline, like the previous burst of favor, was due much more to shifting political and industrial conditions than to any new convictions on the general policy of freedom or restriction. At best, the opinions of the fathers justify even less of superstitious reverence on this topic than on others. Economic thought had then barely begun to develop on the lines which we now think worth following, and the utterances of our statesmen are interesting to the student of economics chiefly in the evidence they give of the gradual permeation of the influence of Adam Smith. To the student of political history, their doings and sayings are of signal importance; and for him Mr. Hill brings much fresh and helpful material.

Economic Geology of the United States. With briefer mention of Foreign Mineral Products. By Ralph S. Tarr, B.S., F.G.S.A., Assistant Professor of Geology at Cornell University. Macmillan & Co. 1894. Pp. 509. 2 plates and 27 figures.

THE object of the geological survey of a State or country, as commonly understood by the legislators who are asked to vote public funds for it, is the development of its mineral resources. Not that it is expected that the geologists employed on the survey shall actually conduct mining operations, but that they shall direct their studies of the geological structure and of the composition of the rocks in such a manner as to facilitate the extraction of the useful minerals from the earth by those who are practically engaged in mining industry. This may be accomplished, first, by showing the position and character of the various mineral-bearing formations; then, the rules which govern the occurrence of the useful minerals; and, finally, as far as possible, the origin and manner of formation of the deposits of these minerals—facts which not only will be of use in the region under survey, but may, with the proper modification, be applied to all regions. The necessary preliminary of all this work is the outlining on maps of the distribution of the various rock formations, by means of which the geologist is enabled to work out the geological history of the region. Many of our surveys have not got beyond this preliminary stage, and if the economic application of geological research were to wait until the structural history of our country was entirely worked out, the present generation would reap but little practical result from their work, however fruitful it might be in more abstract theoretical teachings.

A few geologists, possessing the necessary technical training of mining engineers, have recognized the force of the public demand for practical results from geological research, and have applied scientific methods to the study of the ore deposits of individual regions of whose geological history, if not already known, they made a preliminary study themselves. By the efforts of such men attached to the National Geological Survey, an annual quantitative investigation of the mineral resources of the country was instituted as a branch of that work, and exhaustive studies have been made of a few typical mining districts. In this manner a great deal of scientific information has been obtained with regard to our deposits of useful minerals. The vast field, however, is as yet very incompletely studied. The attractive looking little work under consideration might be thought, from its title, to promise an exhaustive treatise on this subject, but an examination of its preface shows that it is the outcome of the necessity felt by a young professor for some text-book on the subject to serve as a basis for his teachings to his students. It must be gauged, therefore, not as a work of original research, but as a compilation showing the existing state of knowledge of the subject. As such, in spite of the incompleteness of the data, it is necessarily a very much condensed statement to be brought within the compass of a volume of its size. As the author has hoped to find a wider field of readers than his immediate students, he has couched it in plain and, for the most part, untechnical language, thereby rendering it more readily understood by the layman. What is less desirable, however, and we trust not a necessary consequence of popularization, he has thereby sometimes sacrificed strict scientific accuracy.

As contrasted with the recent work of Prof. Kemp on the ore deposits of the United States, this is much less exhaustive in its treatment, yet includes not only the metallic but the non-metallic minerals, such as coal, salt, clay, stone, etc. Some preliminary geological conceptions are given in the introductory chapters on mineralogy and physical geography. The brief chapter on the latter subject is admirable as far as it goes. The same cannot be said for that on the origin of ore deposits, in which the author's attempt at an original classification involves some very ill-defined subdivisions, and the giving different names to forms of deposits which are essentially the same. His descriptions of typical occurrences of the various useful minerals, which occupy the greater part of the book, are for the most part admirable (though very short) résumés of the best published accounts, and with each are given tables of statistics of production, which would be more satisfactory if the author mentioned in each case the source from which the figures were derived, as authorities are apt to differ very widely. In a work intended primarily for students it is somewhat surprising to find statements that are not scientifically accurate or consistent, such as, for instance, the distinguishing smelting and metallurgy as being the one a dry, the other a wet, way of reducing ores: and again, calling the Huronian iron-bearing formation of Lake Superior a division of the Archean, when at other places it is recognized as Algonkian. Older geologists could have told Mr. Tarr that beds of graphite are known which once were coal; that fire clays are not confined to the Paleozoic beds; that the oil-bearing horizon of the Rocky Mountain region, where it has been accurately determined, is lower than the Laramie; that the rocks in which magnetic iron ores mostly occur are not undoubted Archean, etc., etc. Such slips are fortunately not numerous, and may possibly be due to haste of preparation. On the whole, his statements have as great scientific accuracy as their extreme brevity will admit of, and are probably, in so far, more useful and acceptable to the general reader, to whom this work is evidently addressed—though we must except the bimetallist, in view of remarks concerning silver, that "coinage has been an important use of the metal, but promises to become more and more unimportant," and that silver "is far too common for use as a standard of coinage, and its continued use for this purpose means a progressively increasing production which will call for a frequent re-establishment of the ratio. The nations which have not yet discovered this fact are liable to suffer for their shortness of vision."

The book is printed on heavy paper and in large type that contrasts favorably with the average scientific publication, in which the author's object generally is to squeeze as many words into a page as possible, regardless of the reader's eyesight.

Manual of Linguistics. By John Clark. Edinburgh: James Thin; New York: Putnams. 1893.

ENGLISH philology has been suddenly awakened to the existence of German linguistic science. The first surprise expresses itself in primers, which follow each other thick and fast, like catechisms in the track of the Re-

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formation. They deal out German science, some of them with a spoon, some through rubber. It must be allowed that most of them do it exceedingly well. To those who have communed much with *Beiträge* and their ilk, it will be a refreshment occasionally to sample the products of the German mind in a liquid form. It is amazing how much dilution they will bear. This 'Manual of Linguistics,' by John Clark, second classical master in the High School of Dundee, Scotland, is also a primer, and on the whole is a very good and useful one. It undertakes to give "a concise account of general and English phonology, with supplementary chapters on kindred topics."

The book is based upon a few convenient hand-books. It is always easy to track the author to his sources, and he makes no attempt to deny his dependence upon them. He follows his authorities reverently. There is little or no attempt at criticism or independent judgment. He selects the most important statements of principle and the best illustrations, and presents them in pleasing, readable style. The introductory chapter on "The Aryans, their culture and original home," is a summary of Schrader's 'Sprachvergleichung und Urgeschichte'; that on "Letters, their origin and order," of Taylor's 'Alphabet'; those on "Sound-relations in Indo-European," of Brugmann's 'Grundriss'; that on analogy, of Wheeler's 'Analogy'; that on ablaut and accent, of Brugmann's and Bloomfield's treatment of the subject; those on "Sound-relations in English," of Sweet's 'English Sounds.' Traces of his dependence are often to be found in inconsistent use of terminology, as when the author uses "Aryan" sometimes in the sense of Indo-European (pp. xlv, xlvii, xlix), sometimes in the sense of Indo-Iranian (p. 22), and interchanges freely between "Lithu-Slavonic" (p. xviii), "Letto-Slavonic" (p. xx), and "Letto-Slavic" (p. 13). He gives Schrader's theory of the original home in the Russian steppes as "plausible," though he has seen Hirt's criticism of it, and knows that bears and honey unknown to the steppes were familiar to the Indo-Europeans, that various trees, the birch, willow, fir, and probably the oak, were part of their common environment, that the word for sea was in their vocabulary; and though he might have known that the eel, an Indo-European attaché, is not found in the tributaries of the Euxine. He omits *z* from his list of I. E. "consonant vowels," and states that "some deny a place in the list of vowels to *i* and *u*." The ρα of Greek πατράσι he thinks (p. 14) is "a Greek fashion of writing the Sk. *ṛi*-vowel," and says (p. 15) that the *a* in question is "merely a ghost-vowel," which may or may not be explained by his allusion to the "ghost-word οὔνεκα" (p. 42). On p. 105 in attempting to explain the *u* of Goth. *augō*, eye, vs. Lat. *oculus*, he ignores the patent fact of its being influenced by the word for ear, Goth. *ausō*. In his discussion of accent (pp. 156 ff.), he shows that he has not read Wackernagel (Kuhn's *Zeitschrift*, xxv), and does not recognize his property.

It would be easy to multiply petty criticisms, but it would be entirely wrong to suggest the impression that the book is not a convenient and helpful introduction to modern comparative philology.

Essays on Rural Hygiene. By George Vivian Poore, M.D., F.R.C.P. Longmans, Green & Co. 1893.

THIS book might appropriately bear as its epigraph, "God made the country but man made the town, and made it bad," with the further motto, "And he is trying to spoil the country." As from a private standpoint the health of the community should be second only to the health of the individual, and from a public point of view the health of the community is one of the highest aims, it follows that these essays by an intelligent sanitarian commend themselves to all who choose to think about the conditions under which they live. Even should he prove a revolutionist who would overturn some established doctrines, it is refreshing to find an enthusiast in a good cause, for should our principles and our practice not be assault-proof, it is well that they should be damaged; while if they are impregnable, it is satisfactory to have it shown. Dr. Poore is convinced that many of our modern sanitary arrangements have an unscientific basis, and, therefore, are politically, morally, economically, and hygienically bad; and he does not hesitate to say so. But he does not mistake vehemence of assertion for demonstration. He speaks with emphasis, but with the emphasis of facts, or what he believes to be such. The key of his position is that the greatest and the most lasting source of wealth is the soil; that the soil may be enriched or impoverished by the restoration or the deprivation of organic refuse properly belonging to it; and that the water-carriage of sewage starves the earth just as wanton waste starves the masses. He holds that it pollutes the very water supply upon whose purity health depends; that water-borne epidemic disease is the outcome of the elaborate machinery for fouling the streams of the country; and that water-closets and typhoid go together. Water-carriage is wasteful. Its only good point is that it transports from the original scene refuse which, ordinarily, it is inconvenient and it may be hurtful to retain.

For a long time it has been recognized that nitrates, valuable to growing crops, are formed in the soil, but the exact process was undetermined. It has now been established that nitrification is accomplished by certain bacteria, which, with others, live in the upper layers and work to the decomposition of refuse within their reach. They disintegrate the dead that the living may be nourished. From the enormous number of these minute organisms and from the earth-worms (whose service to man Darwin has explained) and other animal forms, the author is justified in describing the upper mould as the living earth. It is in this living earth, in the superficial layers of the soil, that he would deposit all organic refuse, confident of its speedy dissolution without offence and of its appropriation with advantage. For the water-closet he would substitute the earth-closet, but not in the imperfect form in which most of us know it, and for the water itself the spade and barrow. Instead of washing away into the sea or sterilizing with corrosive chemicals the waste of our habitations and of our surroundings, he would incorporate that waste in the living earth, sure of the prompt and ample return it would make in the harvest. And he points to China on a large scale and to his own garden on a small one for practical results.

He also holds that all deep wells are liable to be contaminated by leaks, often remote, from subterranean sewers, and that, in the presence of cesspools and pipes, surface wells, carefully defended against lateral infection and properly covered, are the safest, even in the midst of ground fertilized with domestic refuse. It is a doubtful doctrine, but he seems to have demonstrated its possibility by one practical example of a five-foot well so arranged. But where one well would be constructed under rigorous inspection on sanitary principles, a thousand would have defects, possibly vital; and it may be questioned whether the system of conservancy that works so admirably under his intelligent supervision would also succeed in the hands of incompetent rustics.

When disease-charged excreta are properly buried (and properly seems to mean superficially), we may believe that the morbific element will be destroyed within the soil. But with typhoid and cholera we must remember that they may not always stay buried in the upper layers. A heavy rainstorm may sweep their germs into the nearest water-course, which may yield a water supply; a hot sun and a fair wind may transform fields into clouds of dust and carry yet living spores broadcast. Those germs seem thus in part to carry out their mission in India, and before complete desiccation they may do the same in other lands. Besides which, it is in evidence that anthrax and scarlet fever at least will survive burial for many years.

These essays are by no means confined to sewers and earth treatment. They touch on many themes, and, although native to English skies, they change their weather but not their meaning in drifting across the sea. They are attractively prepared, and the dwellers by the Passaic and the Bronx may read with interest, and, if they will, rival in practice, the trials and the triumphs in the valleys of the Thames and the Anton.

The South Sea Islanders and the Queensland Labor Trade. A Record of Voyages and Experiences in the Western Pacific, from 1875 to 1891. By William T. Wawn. With illustrations. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 1893. Pp. xvi, 440, 8vo.

THE bitter controversy over the introduction of Polynesian labor into Queensland practically ceased with its prohibition in 1891. Capt. Wawn's book, therefore, has only an historical interest as showing how the "labor trade" was conducted during the last sixteen years of its existence. He describes with much detail his twenty-three voyages for natives to the islands of the western Pacific, giving incidentally a full account of the methods of recruiting, both legal and illegal, as well as much information relative to the islands, and the life and customs of their inhabitants. The most favorable side of the labor trade is naturally presented, and, though he writes at times with some heat and treats his opponents with sailor-like frankness, it is hard to question his fairness and honesty. The abuses to which the business was peculiarly liable he freely acknowledges, but he shows that it was for the interest of those engaged in it that it should be conducted fairly. The crews of the labor vessels were invariably the first to suffer for the wrongs done to natives. Was an islander kidnapped, his enraged tribesmen would attempt to avenge the injury on the next white man, whether innocent or guilty, who fell into their hands. He denies the assertion, often made, that the labor traffic as carried on since 1875 was the cause of the decrease of population in Polynesia. On the other hand, he asserts that it tended to lessen the frequency of intertribal wars, and to check cannibalism. This certainly seems reasonable, and, considering the testimony to the excellent treatment of the Kanakas by the Queensland sugar-planters, especially that given by the correspondent of the London

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Times, Miss Shaw, it is difficult to see why this three years' training should not have elevated and civilized the savage.

Capt. Wawn had a number of adventures during his voyages, which were always attended with more or less danger from hostile natives as well as from the perils run in navigating comparatively unknown waters. Perhaps the most entertaining chapters in his book are those relating to the cruise of the *Victoria*, which was chartered by the Government to return certain natives, said to have been kidnapped, to their homes in New Guinea. He would have had far more readers, however (for he tells his story very well), if he had confined himself to the noteworthy incidents of his various voyages and omitted the numerous minute details of each one, mere extracts from his "log" and interesting only to sailors. There are five excellent maps of the islands visited which add much to the value of the book, together with some rather crude but suggestive illustrations from sketches by the author.

Abbotsford: The Personal Relics and Antiquarian Treasures of Sir Walter Scott, described by the Hon. Mary Monica Maxwell Scott of Abbotsford, and illustrated by William Gibb. *London:* Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. 1893.

MRS. MAXWELL SCOTT'S 'Abbotsford' is a sumptuous monument of filial, or nepotal, piety. It is not, as its title may suggest, a description of Sir Walter Scott's home, but chiefly an account of his personal relics and knick-knacks—"gabions," the author is apt to call them, using a word for which we confess ourselves unable to find, except by guess-work, a meaning that is appropriate here. The interest of the book to the general reader is more in the bits of information and gossip, historic, personal, and anecdotal, which Mrs. Scott gives in a straightforward, agreeable way, than in the elaborate chromo prints whose crudeness of color and effect tend to disguise the facile cleverness of Mr. Gibb's drawing. The illustrations are very catholic, not disdaining to include with the sword of Montrose, the pistols of Napoleon I., or Prince Charlie's quaigh, Scott's old beaver hat and spectacles, or even a crumb of oatcake found in a Highlander's pocket after the famishing battle of Culloden—things whose interest is not enhanced by depicting them. It is rather noticeable how little of positive history attaches to many of these relics, even to some of most imposing claims, and this may be a stumbling-block to the doubting. We may trust, however, that Sir Walter, though he was an ardent antiquary and collector, was too canny to be easily imposed upon by shallow claims.

The book is a handsome quarto, printed on the heaviest of paper, and refulgent with more than two dozen of Mr. Gibb's high-colored drawings. The brief account of the building of Abbotsford would have been made more interesting by the addition of a plan of the house.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Atkinson, Prof. G. F. The Biology of Ferns. Macmillan. $2.

Betts, C. W. *American Colonial History Illustrated by Contemporary Medals.* Scott Stamp and Coin Co. $3.

Carnegie, Rev. D. Among the Matabele. F. H. Revell Co. 60 cents.

Cotterell, Constance. Tempe. Harpers. 50 cents.

Davis, Prof. W. M. Elementary Meteorology. Boston: Ginn & Co. $2.70.

Dillon, Prof. J. F. The Laws and Jurisprudence of England and America. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $4.

Edwards, Dr. J. F. Catechism of Hygiene. Philadelphia: The Author.

Fairbairn, Prof. A. M. Religion in History and in Modern Life. New ed. Randolph. $1.50.

Foote, Mrs. Mary H. In Exile, and Other Stories. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.

Gates, L. E. *Selections from the Essays of Francis Jeffrey.* Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.

Hittell, J. S. A History of the Mental Growth of Mankind in Ancient Times. 4 vols. Henry Holt & Co.

Jackson, Prof. A. V. W. Avestâ Reader. First Series. Stuttgart: W. Kohlhammer; Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.85.

Lumby, Prof. J. R. The Epistles of St. Peter. [Expositor's Bible.] Armstrong. $1.50.

Macleod, H. D. The Theory and Practice of Banking. Vol. I. 5th ed. Longmans, Green & Co. $4.50.

Marshall, H. R. Pain, Pleasure and Æsthetics. Macmillan.

Matthews, Brander. Studies of the Stage. Harpers. $1.

Overton, Rev. J. H. The English Church in the Nineteenth Century. Longmans, Green & Co. $4.

Palgrave, R. H. I. Dictionary of Political Economy. Sixth Part. Drengage—Eyton. Macmillan. $1.

Pepper, Prof. William. A Text-Book of the Theory and Practice of Medicine. Vol. II. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders. $5.

Reed, T. B. A Manual of General Parliamentary Law. Rand, McNally & Co.

Reid, John. A Chronicle of Small Beer. Anglo-American Publishing Co. $1.

Remsen, D. S. Primary Elections. Putnams. 75 cents.

Smith, George. The Conversion of India, from Pantænus to the Present Time. F. H. Revell Co. $1.50.

Smith, J. H. Elementary Algebra. New and Revised ed. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.

Southworth, Mrs. E. D. E. N. The Curse of Clifton. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.

Tales from *Town Topics*. *Town Topics* Publishing Co. 50 cents.

The Sir Roger de Coverly Papers. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 40 cents.

Traill, H. D. Social England. Vol. I. From the Earliest Times to the Accession of Edward I. 2d ed. London: Cassell; New York: Putnams. $3.50.

Transactions and Proceedings of the Japan Society, London. Vol. I. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.

White's Manual for Fifth Year Art Instruction. American Book Co. 50 cents.

Winsor, Justin. Cartier to Frontenac: Geographical Discovery in the Interior of North America in its Historical Relations. 1534-1700. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $4.

Zangwill, I. The King of Schnorrers: Grotesques and Fantasies. Macmillan. $1.50.

MARCH

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ARTICLES—The Universities of Germany, by E. D. Perry; Governmental Maps in Schools, by William M. Davis; An Experiment in Correcting Compositions, by W. H. Maxwell; The Study of Education at Harvard, by Paul H. Hanus; Educational Exhibits at the Columbian Exposition, III., by R. Waterman, Jr.; Report of the Committee of Ten, by Chas. De Garmo and C. F. P. Bancroft.

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